

The Historical Outlook

A JOURNAL FOR

READERS AND TEACHERS OF HISTORY AND THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Continuing The History Teacher's Magazine

EDITED IN COOPERATION WITH COMMITTEES OF
THE AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION

AND

THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

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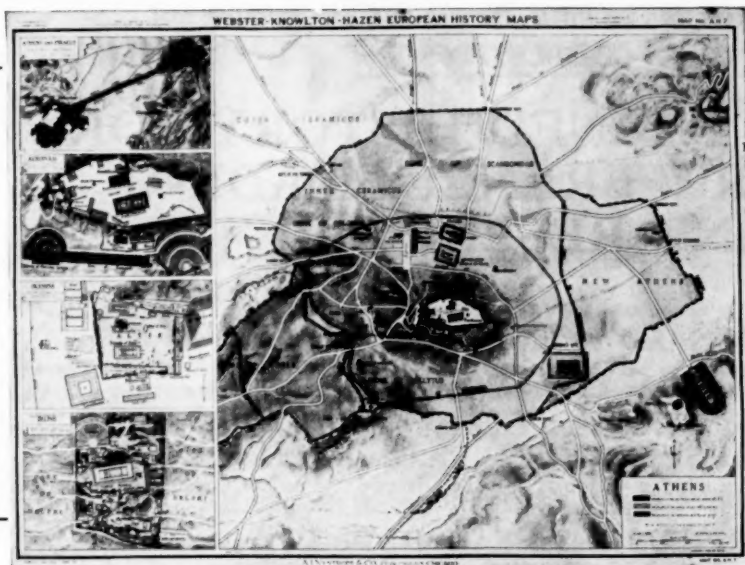
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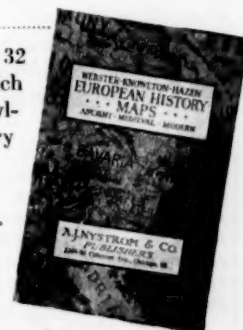
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Annual Meeting of the American Historical Association

Columbus, Ohio, December 27-29, 1923

REPORTED BY NATHAN G. GOODMAN, UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA

After Professor Edward P. Cheyney had read his presidential address, the Chairman of the meeting turned to those who were assembled on the occasion of the Thirty-eighth Annual Meeting of the American Historical Association, and said, "If you expect more addresses like this, you are mistaken. The meeting stands adjourned." Indeed Professor Cheyney's address, "Law in History," was at once bold, brilliant and careful. He asserted that "Laws of History there must be" and that when these laws are definitely known they will serve as a clue to the future. Six laws were suggested among others which may exist. In the first place there is the law of Continuity. "Human history has been an unbroken narrative.... everything is the outcome of something which precedes." Secondly, the fall of empires indicates that groups of people, who cannot keep up with changing conditions, will perish—a law of Mutability. In our country the constitution has survived only because its meaning has been broadened by interpretation to meet changing conditions. There is, in the third place, a law of Interdependence of Nations. Freeing of dependents has been a necessary precedent for national well-being. In the fourth place, there is a law of Democracy. There has been a tendency of governments to come into the hands of all the governed and these popular governments have shown greater vigor, greater enlightenment than other forms of government. The fifth law is that of Free Consent of the people to be governed. Society has been held together by consent—"force has failed; freedom is the only remedy." There is, in the sixth place, a law of Moral Progress. Extensively and intensively moral influences have developed and have become stronger than material influences. Professor Cheyney's suggestions should promote and serve as a basis for further thinking which may be of use to the world in the solution of its greatest problem—to secure and maintain universal peace.¹

The general program of the meeting was well planned and seemed to satisfy the more than four hundred members in attendance. Altogether fifty papers were read, embracing the usual breadth of subjects. There was little time, however, for the social gatherings announced for the evenings. The luncheon given by the Trustees of the Ohio State

University was appreciated, as was the reception given by the Ohio Archeological and Historical Society.

Professor Frank A. Golder's paper on "Impressions of Soviet Russia on a Historian" was a picture of the moral and material demoralization of Russia. In Petrograd in the summer of 1921, Professor Golder "was depressed by the misery, the disorganization of the railways, scarcity of food, rundown condition of the houses, the slovenliness of the soldiers. The old Russian intellectual class has been completely wiped out by the revolution. Moral degradation, physical chaos, mental chaos, mental collapse and even cannibalism prevailed." In 1922 as a result of the new "laissez-faire" economic policy of the government, conditions began to change for the better. People became enthusiastic; commercial and industrial enterprises were springing up. In 1923, however, the government was disappointed with its new economic policy which "led Russia back not only to economic capitalism, but to bourgeois idealism." The new industries and new business houses were taxed out of business. Professor Golder expressed particular sympathy for the too few leaders of the intelligentsia who were crushed in body and spirit. He made an appeal for an impartial study of Russia by American research scholars.

Professor Thomas F. Carter discussed "How the Knowledge of Printing was carried Westward from China." He traced the progress of paper westward from China where it was developed several centuries before its use in Europe. Moveable type apparently existed in Korea at least half a century before it was known in Europe, although its progress westward cannot clearly be traced. It was pointed out that in the origin and spread of printing westward, nearly every nation had some part except the two that now do the bulk of the world's printing—England and the United States.

Professor George L. Burr gave an account of Henry C. Lea's contemplated work on Witchcraft on which years had been spent collecting material and making notes. Professor Burr has long been studying the subject, and it is to be hoped that the projected work, incorporating Mr. Lea's findings, will not long be delayed. Professor Burr's paper on "The Crime of Witchcraft" dealt particularly with the misapprehensions concerning the subject. There are those who think of it as a post-Reformation delusion,

¹ Professor Cheyney's address will be found in full in *American Historical Review*, January, 1924, Vol. XXIX, p. 231.

while others contend that it was a medieval outgrowth of Catholic theology merely surviving into modern times. Professor Burr believes that it was connected with both Protestantism and Catholicism and, indeed, he further believes that a large number of people have not even yet freed themselves from the delusion. Mr. Reginald C. Trotter showed that the mere existence of the United States as a successful example of large scale federation was in itself an inspiration to those who were active in the movement for Canadian Federation and that many of the characteristics of the Dominion are in no small measure due to the proximity, since the eighteenth century, of the expanding American republic. Professor Charles E. Chapman attempted to prove the utility of the Monroe Doctrine to Hispanic America by showing that Africa and Asia have been subject to European expansion since 1823, but the Americas have been comparatively free from European aggression. Mr. Clyde L. Grose sought to clear up some points in "Louis XIV's Financial Relations with Charles II and the English Parliament." He showed that after the fall of Clarendon and the formation of the Triple Alliance, money played an important, and at times a vital, rôle in Anglo-French relations. Parliamentary and religious complications played into French hands and assisted in preserving French influence, usually by means of a subsidy to the King rather than by bribes to members of Parliament. Bribes were never more than questionably successful, and the amount spent on members of Parliament was not very great, but the money so used probably had considerable effect, owing to the wisdom guiding the distribution. The subsidies to Charles II, however, while considerable at certain periods, were never sufficient to balance the loss of parliamentary support.

Miss Bessie L. Pierce, in presenting a survey of "The Attack upon History Textbooks," showed that "this movement has gained considerable momentum, until history teaching and history textbooks are in danger of being an expression of certain religious, racial, or other partisan opinions. By the critic, the author's point of view has, in some instances, been entirely misrepresented by the selection of isolated phrases taken from the context. On the other hand, criticism is justified if the desire to depict events with fairness has led some authors to conceal part of the truth of American history. The superiority of the history textbooks of today over those of thirty years ago, however, cannot be doubted. They represent the attempts of scholars to portray events from a scientific point of view. Further, they are endeavors to translate history, not in terms of the heroic only, but in terms of the causes of American history, in which these characters have played a part."

At the joint Luncheon Conference with the Political Science Association and the National Council for Social Studies there was a general discussion on Social Studies in the Schools. Professor Herbert D. Foster expressed the belief that the secondary schools attempted to cover extensive periods of history in short courses, and in so doing the students could not get the essential consequences because they

did not see the sequences. He suggested that historical mindedness be developed, and interest in history be created by emphasizing small research problems. Mr. Ray O. Hughes, of Pittsburgh, Pa., outlined the plan of his course in "Problems in Democracy," which covered a variety of social studies, including history, to be taught in one year. Professor Thomas H. Reed was convinced that the majority of students cannot absorb all the social studies at one time. He expressed what appeared to be a general belief, that most secondary school teachers are incapable of teaching a general course. On the whole the discussion was disappointing and offered nothing new on which to work for a solution of the problem of social studies courses.

Professor Cheyney, at the session on the "Contribution and Place of History in the Schools," reviewed the question of History in the Schools from the appointment of the Committee of Seven in 1896. He suggested that inasmuch as teachers of social sciences are and will largely be history teachers, these subjects may gradually become history. Professor J. Montgomery Gambrill, the results of whose survey have appeared in *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, asserted that the supposed efforts to crowd history out of the school curricula are not evident. He sought to have the Historical Association co-operate with school officials. Professor Edgar Dawson's tentative statistical report of the History Inquiry shows, among other things, the following: that Ancient History as a separate course seems to be receding in popularity; the tendency to stress recent history seems to be weakening such popularity as Medieval History formerly had; English History as a separate subject seems to be losing ground; the one year course in World History, while popular in some quarters, does not seem as yet to have made much headway; the tendency to give a larger amount of time to the socialized discussion of current events seems to be growing; the training of teachers for social studies, separately or as a group, is clearly in sad need of attention.

The Association adopted the resolutions offered by Professor William E. Lingelbach, Chairman, for the Committee on History Teaching in the Schools. The resolutions called for a strong constructive policy in the matter of history in the schools and advised a comprehensive survey of history and other social studies. A careful study of the problem of teacher training is sought and also a study of the college entrance requirements and of the Freshman courses in colleges and universities. Continued co-operation was advised with organizations such as the National Council for the Social Studies, the Joint Commission on the Social Studies, the National Education Association and other bodies interested. The nature of these resolutions received general approval.

Forceful resolutions concerning the censorship of textbooks were presented by Professor Carlton J. H. Hayes and adopted by the Association. It was resolved "that genuine and intelligent patriotism, no less than the requirements of honesty and sound

scholarship, demand that textbook writers and teachers should strive to present a truthful picture of past and present, with due regard to the different purposes and possibilities of elementary, secondary, and advanced instruction; that criticism of history textbooks should, therefore, be based not upon grounds of patriotism, but only upon grounds of faithfulness to fact as determined by specialists or tested by consideration of the evidence; that the cultivation in pupils of a scientific temper in history and the related social sciences, of a spirit of inquiry and a willingness to face unpleasant facts are far more important objectives than the teaching of special interpretations of particular events; and that attempts, however well meant, to foster national arrogance and boastfulness and indiscriminate worship of national 'heroes' can only tend to promote a harmful pseudo-patriotism." It was further stated that the successful continuation of the censorship and agitation will bring about a serious deterioration of textbooks and of the teaching of history.

At the business meeting of the Association, the Secretary, Professor John S. Bassett, made several interesting announcements. The Bibliography of Modern English History for the Tudor period is now being brought up to date and will soon appear. The Guide to Historical Literature should be ready for the publishers during the present year. The 1924 meeting of the Association will be held at Richmond, Va., but one day will be spent at Washington, D. C., to hear the message of Mr. Woodrow Wilson, who was elected President for this year. The Endowment Committee plans to raise \$60,000 during the current year. This will demand the support of the membership of the Association. The Herbert B. Adams Prize was divided between Miss Mary H. McGuire for her essay on the "History of the Oath Ex Officio in England," and John T. McNeill for his essay on "The Celtic Penitentials." The George L. Beer Prize was also shared: Edmund M. Earle and Walter R. Batsell submitted the prize essays on "Turkey, the Great Powers, and the Bagdad Railway," and the "Historical Origins of the Mandatory System."

The following officers for the year 1924 were elected at the annual meeting:

President, Woodrow Wilson.
First Vice-President, Charles M. Andrews.
Second Vice-President, Dana C. Munro.
Secretary, John Spencer Bassett.
Treasurer, Charles Moore.

Members of the Council: Arthur L. Cross, Sidney B. Fay, C. J. H. Hayes, Frederic L. Paxson, Henry P. Biggar, Mary W. Williams, Arthur M. Schlesinger, C. H. McIlwain.

Nominating Committee: Wallace Notestein, Chairman; A. C. Cole, Frances G. Davenport, E. R. Turner, C. D. Hazen.

The Committees for the year 1924 follow:

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Conference of Historical Societies: Victor H. Paltsits, Joseph Schafer.

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Board of Editors of the American Historical Review: J. Franklin Jameson, Managing Editor; Archibald C. Coolidge, William E. Dodd, Guy S. Ford, Evarts B. Greene, F. A. Christie.

Herbert Baxter Adams Prize: Conyers Read, Chairman; Charles H. McIlwain, Nellie Neilson, Louis J. Pactow, Bernadotte E. Schmitt.

George Louis Beer Prize: Bernadotte E. Schmitt, Chairman; George H. Blakeslee, Robert H. Lord, Jesse H. Reeves, R. H. Schuyler.

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Representatives on Joint Commission of Teachers of Social Studies: William E. Lingelbach, Arthur M. Schlesinger.

Endowment: Charles Moore, Chairman; Charles M. Andrews, John S. Bassett, J. Franklin Jameson, Worthington C. Ford, Charles H. Haskins, H. Barrett Learned, Stewart L. Muns.

Writing of History: Jean Jules Jusserand, Chairman; John S. Bassett, Wilbur C. Abbott, Charles W. Colby.

Bibliography of English History: Edward P. Cheyney, Chairman; Arthur L. Cross, Roger B. Merriman, Wallace Notestein, Conyers Read.

Documentary Historical Publications of the U. S.: J. F. Jameson, Chairman; C. M. Andrews, John S. Bassett, W. C. Ford, Gaillard Hunt, Andrew C. McLaughlin, John B. McMaster, Charles Moore, Frederick J. Turner.

EDITOR'S NOTE.—A gloom was cast over the last few hours of the meeting by the illness of the retiring President, Professor E. P. Cheyney. The attack was diagnosed as pneumonia, and on December 29th he was taken to a Columbus hospital. His condition was serious for a few days, but the symptoms have gradually improved, although at the date of this, he has not been able to leave the hospital.—A. E. McK.

Belgrade and Sofia in the Spring of 1923

BY PROFESSOR LUCY E. TEXTOR, VASSAR COLLEGE

Belgrade once more! I had been there in the summer of 1920, and remembered the city as it was then. It had seemed to me little more than a village with its winding streets paved with cobble stones, its shabby nondescript houses, many of them only one-story high, and with mortar peeling off here and there, its unimpressive shops which quite failed to dazzle the eyes. What a transformation had taken place in less than three years! On all sides were fine new buildings numbering more than four thousand. The very heart of the city boasted a new palace for the King. Everywhere there were houses in process of construction, many of them distinctly imposing. And how different was the life on the streets! There were more people, they displayed new energy, and a consciousness of purpose. I stopped in my early morning walk at one of the many little bake shops. Its owner had just opened the door of his great oven, approximately five by eight feet, and showed real pleasure in taking out the fresh loaves with his long wooden shovel. Oven and counter were parallel, and but two feet apart, and the counter was flush with the sidewalk so that the buyers had but to stop on their way past. Many a workman bought his breakfast there. One dinar, little more than a penny, provided him with one-third of a loaf of rye or wheat bread. Whole-wheat bread was a delicacy which only a few shops dispensed.

There were, of course, beer and coffee houses innumerable, their tables placed upon the sidewalk. These were patronized at every hour of the day, the coffee being prepared after the Turkish fashion, black, very sweet, and served in small cups. Scarcely a time when every table was not taken at the restaurant across the street from the great market. That was the busiest spot in Belgrade, and a scene of never-ending interest. The first thing that caught the eye was a perfect riot of flowers. Closer investigation revealed heaps of luscious spinach, chard, young onions, red and green peppers. Tables heaped with paprika lent another note of color. Venders of milk thickened so as to be a substitute for butter were everywhere in evidence. Butter, be it said, is a luxury in these parts, expensive, uncolored, unsalted, and

often having a peculiar flavor not likely to appeal to the American taste. Here and there a white-capped individual sold squares of what appeared to be flaky pie-crust covered with cheese or apples, but alas! indescribably tough. More tempting, after experience, were the little green jars of bonny-clabber, perhaps the favorite form of milk in this region. Threading their way in and out between the rude stalls and counters were Turks in native costume, dispensing a pink fermented beverage from flagons slung upon their backs. It was in this quarter of the city that one got most distinctly the sense of being remote from Western Europe.

STUDENT LIFE.

The market and the university face each other. Across from the stalls stand two very large plain stucco buildings, one old and one built during the last year. The number of students is immensely larger than it was before the War when many studied at Budapest, Prague, and elsewhere. Patriotic motives and depreciated money combine now to keep the students at home. Moreover, the number is increased by hundreds of young Russians, fugitives from their own country. It strengthens one's faith in human nature to see how warmly these aliens are welcomed. The State gives several hundreds of them not only tuition, but also a limited sum for food and lodging. It might almost be said that the Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes makes no distinction in its treatment of its own, and of Russian students. They receive the same amount of financial help. Both, it must be said, suffer greatly from the lack of suitable hostels. Serbs, and Russians alike, live crowded in ill-ventilated rooms. But in good, and in evil fortune the greatest good-will exists between them. I got very distinctly the impression that whatever the Yugo-slavs did for the Russians, they did with a whole heart, and with no thought of return. Yet, in the large, the Russians do make a return. Few know that somewhat remote from the center of the town, without display-window or sign to indicate its existence, there is a Russian bookshop filled with veritable treasures. The owner gets his wares in

large measure from the little Republics that once formed part of the great Empire. Much of what Russia gave to the world in the way of history, literature, and science is to be found here, often in beautiful editions. And these books meet a very real need in Serbia today, for it has not in its own tongue adequate material to meet the requirements of its enlarged university curriculum, just as it has not enough scholars to fill its newly created university chairs, and those left vacant by German scholars. That is one reason, though not the only one, why Russian professors have been appointed members of the faculty.

It was delightful to see the easy camaraderie that existed between the young men and young women students, but it must not be inferred from this that Serbian women have the same political privileges as men. That is far from being the case. The woman question is not even very greatly to the fore. It is true that when I asked whether there was any organization which existed for the purpose of promoting equal suffrage I was answered in the affirmative. But when I came to talk with its leader I found that social welfare activities were paramount. "It would be useless to agitate the question of giving women the ballot just now," she said. "Our men believe that such a proceeding would simply augment the power of the priests, and there is a great deal of truth in that point of view." I must say, however, that a number of the women with whom I talked struck me as extremely able. That no one of them was inclined to press for the vote at present was perhaps an evidence of their insight. With the great mass of Serbian men ranged in the opposition there would be no chance of success.

And, in truth, as it is, the Government has all it can do to steer the ship of state. There have been more than forty so-called crises already. No combination of the various political parties has been strong enough to hold together long, and ministry after ministry, as the world well knows, has fallen. I was told, and I have reason to believe with some truth, that this has often been due to the tactics of Paschich. That veteran statesman has known how to gain the support of one party after another by promises which it did not suit his purpose to fulfill. It was his policy, when fulfilment could no longer be postponed, to bring about a "crisis" which dissolved the coalition, and thus freed him from the necessity of keeping his word. Sometimes, of course, he did keep faith. For instance, in order to win the vote of the great Mussulmen landowners for the constitution, he paid them out of all proportion for the land which they were obliged to give up under the agrarian law.

AGRARIAN REORGANIZATION.

The break-up of the great estates in Yugoslavia has followed much the same lines as in other countries of the Near East. Here, too, it was the fear of bolshevism which was the impelling motive for dividing the land among the people. They must be satisfied if they were to be kept quiet. The democratic party came forward as the advocate of agrarian reform, not so much because it believed in it, as because it wished to curry favor with the masses. It

stood, primarily, for centralization of authority, but this issue was not vivid enough to attract the peasants. When, in an unlucky moment, the democratic party allowed the radical party to nominate the minister of land reform many voters changed sides, influenced by the knowledge that this official would have many favors to confer. To a certain extent the partition of the estates has been administered by political parties for political purposes. It is not possible in an article of this kind to do more than touch upon the subject of agrarian reform. Suffice it to say that the land laws take on an added complexity from the fact that they deal with units, each of which has its own past—Serbia, Croatia, Slovenia, Bosnia, Herzegovina, Montenegro, Dalmatia, and the Banat. In general, it may be said that the number of acres which the great landowner is permitted to retain depends upon the amount of land needed by the peasants in the near vicinity. Many parcels have already been distributed, but title-deeds have not yet been issued. Progress along this line is slow, because the question of autonomy for Croatia absorbs the Government's attention.

It is easy to understand Croatia's wish to be self-governing. One has only to compare its trim, well-kept farms with the ragged countryside of Serbia. It should be said, however, that the difference is much less now than it was three years ago. Pride in their country promises to do for the Serbians what Hungarian rule did for Croatia in the way of teaching the people thrift and cleanliness, and enterprise. I was amazed at the progress that had been made in three years. How much the morale of Belgrade had improved may be seen from a single incident. Remembering that the porters were very light-fingered in the summer of 1920, I wished to keep a sharp eye upon my luggage when I arrived in April, 1923. I was, therefore, reluctant to leave my bags on the platform with my porter while I went inside the station to have my passport examined. "You need have no fear," said the official. "The porters have been organized, and all are responsible for each." That was my entry to Belgrade, and I felt on leaving that its promise had been fulfilled when a native porter, who could understand not a word of anything but his own language, steered me successfully through crowds of gaily dressed peasants, and then indicated that I was to go in a certain direction while he darted in the opposite one to secure for me the best seat in the compartment. Truly they are rapidly learning western ways in Yugoslavia. Only, however, be it said, along some lines. They have as yet little sense of time, and little realization of the truth that cleanliness is next to godliness. Moreover, the present status of business efficiency and honesty leaves much to be desired.

CHANGES IN BULGARIA.

From Belgrade to Sofia is an eighteen-hour run, allowing for the time spent at the border. The customs inspection of Bulgaria is extremely strict. It was distressing to see officials ruthlessly unearth remnants of cheap cotton and woolen goods, which had been destined as gifts for eager children in poor-houses. I must say that there were no scenes of any kind, and that the despoiled bore themselves with the

stoicism which is often attributed to the Bulgarian. The ride from the station to the hotel revealed the change which has taken place in the city. It had been so clean and well-kept three years ago. It was now dirty, and gave the impression of being down at the heel. That the State's capital lying so high, almost girdled with mountains, and swept by clean, invigorating air should be in a state of neglect seemed unsuitable. Yet so it was. The agrarian party, then in power, and now so dramatically removed from the helm of state, refused to spend money for the upkeep of Sofia. The citizens, subject as they were to heavy taxation, had little with which to repair their houses. Many families were in real straits because their property in the Allied countries had been seized during the war, and their own Government took no steps to reimburse them.

I soon found that the one absorbing topic of conversation was this same Government. There were, of course, those who were for it. They regarded Stambulisky as the strong man of the day and accepted his measures as necessary for the good of the majority. "It is true," they said, "that the State is doing everything for the farmer, but more than 80 per cent. of the people live on the land. Hitherto they have been neglected. It is their turn now to grow prosperous, to go to school, and to rule. And the State will fare as well under their guidance as under that of the upper classes, who alone are responsible for our many misfortunes." I talked with the Minister of Education, and found him self-confident and optimistic, a young man wearing a blue shirt with a soft turned-down collar, rather shabby dark frock coat, and light nondescript trousers, obviously without much culture, though he had written a book on South America, a copy of which he presented to me with much pride. It was arranged that I should see Stambulisky, but no time could be set, because, absolutely, no one knew when he would return. The fact that his life was in danger—scarcely a day passed on which he did not receive threatening letters—determined him not to announce his movements. He knew that many people resented his agreement with Yugoslavia, the terms of which were not known, but which was rightly believed to contain an assurance that Bulgaria would respect Yugoslavia's rights in Macedonia, and would not allow recalcitrant Bulgarians living there to take refuge in her territory. The temper of these malcontents was made evident to me by the fact that while I was in Sofia the owner of the hotel where I was staying, the Union Palace, was murdered because he upheld Stambulisky's policy. The late Prime Minister laid great stress upon the necessity of Bulgaria's preserving friendly relations with her neighbors, however aggrieved she might feel herself in the terms of the Treaty of Neuilly. In that connection it is worth while to recall the opening sentences of an article contributed by Stambulisky to the "Manchester Guardian Commercial." "Of all the nations lately at war with the Entente none have been more severely treated than Bulgaria. The Treaty of Neuilly took from her large territories inhabited by Bulgarians, cut her off from the Ægean

Sea, and burdened her with unbearable financial obligations." That the bitterness engendered by the Treaty of Neuilly played a part in the June revolution none can doubt.

I found individuals in Sofia who, while not belonging to the agrarian party, and not sympathizing with its aims, nevertheless did not look with disfavor upon all of Stambulisky's measures. And certainly the compulsory State service seemed to be working out very well. The university and school buildings were absolutely immaculate, and they had been cleaned by their respective students and pupils. One of the professors assured me that it was his experience that the students entered with real zest into this work assigned them by the State. He took me into room after room, and showed me the books which had been catalogued and arranged by them, under the supervision, in each case, of a member of the faculty. Groups of students were detailed to plant trees, cut grass, lay out flower beds. At least one group engaged in archeological excavation, and laid bare a tomb of great antiquity. In many instances this work of state service was regarded as one long picnic. Of course, there were prosaic tasks, such as sweeping the streets, all too little done, be it said. I was told that those detailed to do this sometimes put on patent-leather boots and wielded their brooms with the disdain of young gentlemen, but that they found a certain fun even in this procedure.

PUNISHMENT OF POLITICAL OPPONENTS.

The bitter enemies of Stambulisky saw nothing good in any of his measures. I talked with many of the families of the ministers who were in prison. It will be remembered that more than three years ago the members of the Radoslavoff cabinet were arrested on the charge that they were responsible for Sofia's entrance into the War on the side of Germany. The trial dragged on for nearly eighteen months. Finally, on April 1, 1923, the Bulgarian Supreme Court sentenced six members to life imprisonment, including Radoslavoff himself, who had escaped into Germany. One was condemned to fifteen years, and three others to five or ten years. These men were in the Sliven prison. Much, if not all, of their property had been taken from them, and their families were in financial straits. Meanwhile the members of the Gueshoff, Daneff, and Malinoff cabinets had also been arrested, the first two on the ground of having wrought to the disadvantage of Bulgaria in the Balkan wars of 1912 and 1913, and the third because it failed to make a separate peace with the Entente toward the close of the World War. There were, of course, other allied charges. Gueshoff himself was out of the country when the arrests were made. These men were in the old Turkish prison at Shumla. I was urged by some of their families to go to see them in order that I might reveal to the world how different the prison was from the account given in *Illustration*. It is not generally known that the article in question was written by the Secretary of Stambulisky. But the journey seemed not worth while in view of the fact, as I was informed, that the Bulgarian Government had thus far given only one foreigner the privilege of

visiting these gentlemen, and only on condition that he would keep silent concerning his visit. Members of the families of the prisoners, who had gone to see them, told me that they were crowded together in rooms just opposite those of convicts, and that, save for the weekly walk to the public bath, they had no opportunity for exercise except in a very small ill-smelling court. Visitors were allowed only on Wednesday afternoon, and, of course, only such as received permits.

It need hardly be said that the families and friends of the members of these four cabinets were bitter in their denunciation of Stambulisky, and the agrarian party. So far as I could make out most of the culture and enlightenment of Sofia was in the ranks of the opposition. The university professors had occasion to feel themselves much aggrieved. Accustomed, as they were, to complete autonomy they resented the unwarrantable interference of the Government. It had raised the tuition fees very considerably without consulting them. After a prolonged battle a compromise was effected. It was agreed that the tuition fee should remain for one semester as it had been, and should then be increased. It should be said that the straightened circumstances of many would-be students is such that the number in the university is now only about 3,500, whereas, in 1919, it was about 7,000. Another example of interference on the part of the Government was its dictum that several letters of the alphabet should be dropped. The faculty felt that such a matter as this lay wholly within its province, and its vigorous representations to this effect brought about another compromise. Everyone connected with the university was left free to use or omit these letters as he chose. That patriotic motives entered into the opposition of the students was apparent to me when one of them explained that if the hard sign were dropped the Bulgarian language would approach more nearly the Serbian.

THE UNIVERSITY AND MUSEUMS.

The university is inadequately housed. Many of the scattered buildings were formerly private dwellings. A fine, new structure is, however, soon to be erected upon an extraordinarily good site. A considerable sum was left for this purpose years ago, and was put at interest until it should grow to the amount needed. Then, alas, came the War, and the fall in value of the lev. The depreciated currency has worked much hardship in Bulgaria as well as elsewhere in Eastern Europe. The professors are among the chief sufferers. The best paid among them in the University of Sofia received in April the equivalent of twenty American dollars per month, and living was dear. I was impressed with their devotion to their work. Cut off, as they were, from any participation in the Government, they were devoting all their energies to teaching and research. One of them has discovered a process whereby the growth of a seed is hastened by being dipped into a certain solution. In his laboratory I saw rice germinating in thirty different solutions, the object being, of course, to find out which would best aid its growth.

The importance of such a discovery as this is self-evident.

To one who has heard nothing about them the museums of Sofia come as a surprise and a revelation, especially in view of the fact that little more than forty years ago Sofia was a squalid Turkish town. A picturesque mosque houses the fine archeological collection, rich in specimens of the Roman era. Coins covering more than two thousand years are carefully and adequately arranged in a long line of cases. Mosaics and frescoes of early Bulgarian art add a rich note of color. The Zoological museum is said to be the best in the Balkan peninsula, and I can well believe it. I was told that the late King Alexander had been its patron, and that it owed many of its specimens to him. The excellence of its arrangement showed wide knowledge and great care. It was a pleasure to learn that the curator was in close touch with our own Smithsonian Institution. The ethnological museum is a storehouse of peasant costumes, and has interesting graphic illustrations of the mode of life, and the activities of the people. One striking thing about all the museums is the excellent order and arrangement of the material. In this connection I cannot forbear mentioning an exhibition characterized by the same qualities in the Department of Education. Everything in the way of textbooks, illustrative material, and apparatus necessary in teaching is arranged according to grades and subjects, an invaluable aid in the equipping of schools. This certainly seems in line with the nation's passion for education.

RETROGRESSION OF BULGARIA.

When I visited Sofia three years ago I thought the Bulgarians the most promising of the Balkan peoples. They seemed to me bent on retrieving themselves. This attitude of mind, combined with their well-known frugality, industry, and persistence promised wonders. During my recent visit I was most conscious of their bitterness. They felt that they had not been justly dealt with in the redistribution of territory embodied in the peace treaties. Their chief grievance was, of course, that Macedonia had been given to Yugoslavia. And it is my own belief that Stambulisky's stern insistence that Yugoslavia's right to Macedonia should be respected, played the largest part in his downfall. It is true that his internal policy bore heavily on the townspeople, but they were not the ones who brought to pass the coup d'état. That came from the army, which never relished its duty of keeping order on the Macedonian frontier. It is not a grateful task to apprehend one of your own race when he seeks to escape from his oppressors, and it is as oppressors that the Bulgarians living in Macedonia regard the Serbs, and, perhaps, not altogether without justification. Almost since time immemorial Macedonia has been called the apple of discord, and never was that name more truly descriptive of the conditions existing there than in the spring of 1923. I left Bulgaria with a distinct feeling that no government, whatever its nature, that tried conscientiously to execute the Treaty of Neuilly would command the loyalty of the whole nation.

Some Reasons for Teaching the History of Canada in the Colleges of the United States

BY PROFESSOR MILLEDGE L. BONHAM, JR., HAMILTON COLLEGE, CLINTON, NEW YORK.

Ever since, as a seven-year-old boy, in the "dame school" of my native village, I read the thrilling story of Wolfe at Quebec, I have been interested in Canadian history. Of recent years I have had a growing feeling that more attention should be paid to it in the colleges of the United States. The principal reasons conducing to this conclusion are here set forth.

Canada and the United States have drawn most of their respective civilizations from the same sources and these civilizations are patently very similar. It follows, naturally, that one who knows a civilization similar to his own will understand his own better. Clearly, one cannot truly understand the civilization of today without knowing its past. Thus the citizen of the United States who seeks to understand Canada of today must study Canada of yesterday.

In language, literature, jurisprudence, and polity the two countries are derived, in most essentials from the same germs. The operations of Canadian institutions should (and do) throw valuable sidelights upon the operations of parallel institutions in the United States. Yet in both cases, one must know the historical background of the institutions if he would seek to comprehend them fully.

From the days of Cabot and Verrazano to those of Warren Harding and McKenzie King the histories of the United States and Canada have touched and overlapped at many points. One side cannot be clearly apprehended if the other side is ignored. Is La Salle a figure in the history of Canada or of the United States? Is Wolfe a hero of Canada or of the United States? Is Iberville a maker of history in Canada or in Louisiana? Are the battles of Plattsburg and Lundy's Lane, the Rush-Bagot Convention, and Foch's final victory incidents in Canadian history or in United States history? To all these questions the answer must be the same: "Both. They all belong to American history."

Geography has made the two countries closer kinsmen than the Siamese twins. It is only sensible to know all one can about one's neighbors, particularly when they are one's own kin, and the past of one's neighbors is bursting with import for oneself. So both "Uncle Sam" and "The Lady of the Snows" should teach their citizens the history of their nearest and greatest neighbor and kinsman. It behooves "Uncle Sam," as slightly the elder, to set the example.

The United States and Canada have so many commercial, industrial, political, racial, and cultural interests in common that it seems axiomatic that they should seek better acquaintance with one another. Since college men and women play so important a part in a nation's life, obviously they are the best ones with which to begin this search for closer relations, clearer understanding, and more enlightened

co-operation. Is immigration a Canadian problem, a problem of the United States, or a mutual problem? Every year thousands cross the border from each direction and are incorporated into the citizenry of the other. In passing, it is not amiss to remark that three of my colleagues at Hamilton College are natives of Canada. The tariff, prohibition, the paper industry, religion, and literature are some of the more important mutual concerns. Every year the interests of the two neighbors grow closer. During the days when sectionalism was rampant in the United States, a wise statesman said to the people of the North and the South: "My countrymen, know one another and you will love one another." This advice is equally valid for Canada and the United States. The first step in this knowledge is the study of the histories of the two nations.

Another very potent reason for the study of Canadian history in the colleges of the United States—and everywhere—is its intrinsic charm and interest. We nephews of "Uncle Sam" are justly proud that one of the foremost writers of Canadian history was our own Parkman. Canadians may be equally proud of the part played in the public life of the United States by that splendid son of Charlottetown, P. E. I., the late Franklin K. Lane. We claim a share in Robert W. Service, Bliss Carman, Goldwin Smith, and many other Canadian men of letters. These names belong to the history of both countries.

The late Walter Page, when an editor, was often pestered by young men just from college, who sought places on his staff. His overwhelming rejoinder to such a request was as follows:

"So you want to write?"

"Yes, sir."

"Well, then, write. Nobody is going to prevent you, and if you write well enough I will buy your produce."

Doubtless any reader who has followed me thus far is ready to exclaim: "If you are so anxious to study Canadian history, study it. Nobody is going to prevent you." Yes, but I want not only to study it, but to have it taught in the colleges of the United States.

When I taught in Louisiana—where by the way, we had a few students from Canada—I offered a course in the history of the Southern neighbors of the United States. Since coming to New York I have felt more strongly than ever that my students should know something of the career of our great neighbor to the north. Two years ago I offered the students of Hamilton College a course entitled: "The United States as a World Power: Latin America." It proved quite popular with the seniors and juniors, who, the first semester, studied the history of their

own country since the Civil War, and turned in the second semester to a survey of the rise of the Hispanic nations of America. The course was announced for the current session. Last spring, when the elections had been made for this year, I summoned those who had elected this course and put before them the chief reasons for substituting the history of Canada for that of the United States since 1865. I left the decision to the two dozen young men, natives of several different states. With but one dissenting vote they chose Canada.

So, last fall we began to study Canadian history. Already the course has proved popular and profitable. In planning and operating it I have had the good fortune to obtain the advice and assistance of Professor George M. Wrong, of the University of Toronto, and that of the officials of the Dominion Department of the Interior. Thanks to their aid, the experiment has been such a success that it will probably become a permanent feature of this department.

The Place of History in a New Social Studies Program

BY CHARLES E. MARTZ, CLEVELAND SCHOOL OF EDUCATION, CLEVELAND, OHIO

Some day a student of Americanization will begin his investigation of the subject by studying the elements in the real nature of the completed product, the American. Aliens are to be made into Americans; just what transformation is needed? What is an American? It is possible that the answer, when found, will include the observation that the American has two characteristics which, among others, are distinguishing marks. One is the demand that the activities of life shall show results that are concrete and immediate. The other is the tendency to make all sorts of irrational and radical changes in the endeavor to meet any condition of discomfort or dissatisfaction that arises.

As to the former of these elements, note the emphasis which we place upon material success. To a great degree, the measure of American success is in terms of salary or wealth. Note the vogue of the efficiency engineer and of the employment expert. Note the rise of vocational training, partly as a result of the demands of our high school students for an answer to the question, "What good is this going to do me?" When the American plays he wants a game in which the result can be known unmistakably and in a short time. The American cannot tolerate the leisurely atmosphere of cricket. A baseball game which lasts two hours causes a great display of impatience. He is apt to prefer the instant results of poker and crap-shooting, to the more philosophic pleasure of bridge. Even in literature the novels of Dickens have had to make way for the short story in which causes give way to results with startling suddenness. The American demands quick and definite results.

The second character, that of changing violently the existing order in an effort to alleviate discomfort and dissatisfaction, is clearly marked in the history of our political development, and especially in the story of our presidential elections. For a variety of reasons we are usually unable clearly to see the cause and effect relationship between the reasons for our trouble and the trouble itself. We may be feeling the influence of a lack of rain-fall, or of over-production of wheat, or the delayed result of some act of a past administration. Whatever the real cause of trouble,

our remedy is apt to be pretty constant. We turn out the current administration and put the party of opposition into power. The American is, at heart, not a stand-patter; he is a decided radical in his reaction to conditions which he does not like. Witness, as an example of this, the almost regular defeat of parties which have passed tariff bills, in spite of the fact that the defeats have come long before the new bill could have cast much influence upon economic conditions, and as a result of a discontent the causes of which have been far removed from the realm of the tariff. Witness the present political unrest among the farmers, in spite of the fact that the major elements in their condition have little relation to political considerations or governmental action. The American has no hesitation in upsetting the whole status quo in an irrational attempt to improve upon conditions which he deems unsatisfactory.

TENDENCIES OF EDUCATIONAL EXPERIMENT.

The two characteristics are seen clearly in the tendencies which are now holding forth in the educational world. On one side is the vogue of the demand for concrete, objective results which can be measured. Educational measurements, developed to the logical conclusion in the standard tests, give us just what we want, the satisfactory feeling that we can hold up to the world some magic numbers which are the evidences of success. Again, we are trying to formulate courses through some mechanical, objective, and measureable criteria, a process which we are delighted to call more scientific. On the other side, we have no compunction about scrapping all of our established practises and ideas as soon as we detect evidences of imperfection, usually without waiting until we have clearly analyzed the cause of the trouble. If the old is not perfect, let us discard it in toto and begin upon something entirely new.

These characteristics are evident in no other field to the extent that they are in the range of the Social Studies, now the "ugly duckling" of the educational world. There is little question but that the traditional course in history was of little real value and was, in many cases, actually vicious. When the fact dawned upon the new educational fraternity, a great section

of it immediately demanded that the whole structure be thrown into the discard, and that something entirely new be formulated, and that this new thing, in order to make sure of an improvement, be entirely different from the old. The recently published report of Professor Gambrill describes in some detail a few of the experiments in line with this attitude, experiments varying in the degree to which they illustrate it. We are formulating courses in Community Civics, in Problems of Democracy, in Economic Civics, and what not. We seem to be fairly unanimous in one detail, namely, that the course in history should be either entirely eliminated or seriously curtailed. This is typically American.

As to the first mentioned characteristic, the demand for objective criteria, educators—a term appropriated largely by members of the faculties of our colleges for teachers—are now becoming imbued with the American notion that in the Social Studies, as elsewhere, nothing is worth while which cannot be substantiated by something mathematical, some counting process applied to something concrete. Now, there is no question but that such a process is of the greatest value, provided and as soon as we have two prerequisite bits of information. We must know, first of all, what we want to measure; secondly, we must learn how to measure it. There is no inclination in this article to belittle the work of those who are struggling with the technique of measurement. In some fields the success of these efforts has been of the greatest value, and there is hope that in the future the range of this value will be extended. In hygiene, in reading, spelling, arithmetic, and like subjects where results are rather well defined and concrete, we have gotten results which have helped all the teachers. But we must recognize that the technicians have not yet accomplished their purpose in the realm of the Social Studies. We are not yet sure of our goal, beyond the vague term, citizenship. We know of no way to measure the immediate results of development toward our goal.

PROBLEMS OF NEW SOCIAL STUDIES COURSES.

There is a well defined movement to construct a new course which shall begin with current societal problems of our group, the organization of which shall be made with no reference to the traditional boundary lines between history, geography, etc. This is a procedure which opens up a series of as yet unanswered questions. Is it sound pedagogy for us to begin with the most complicated and difficult set of phenomena that we could possibly find in the field, the current situation? Would it not be much more satisfactory to reach the present complex inter-action of factors through a study of cases in which the factors may be more nearly isolated or, at least, gotten in much simpler combination? Is there much likelihood that the problems of today will be the problems with which the seventh grade boy will have to deal when he has passed beyond the irresponsible years of school life? American life is changing so rapidly that soon we shall encounter an entirely new set of problems. May it not be possible that the only advantages to be gained from a study of current

problems are the problematical increase in interest through a treatment of the contemporary, and the development of a general interest and some facility in the study of societal phenomena? If this be true, need we be so inclusive and scientific in our selection of the phenomena to be studied? Again, is it reasonable to expect to get school children to understand and to have convictions upon all of the worth while current problems of society? Is not this the task for the specialist? Is it possible for the average citizen?

It is not the purpose at this place to discuss the possible answers to these questions. They are presented merely to indicate that there are many unanswered questions in the field, a situation which leads to the opinion that our overthrow of the old has been most irrational in the light of our lack of knowledge about the new. Surely a more rational procedure would be to analyze more carefully the factors in the old teaching of history. Such an analysis would give us a starting place much more in line with one of the most clearly recognized societal laws, that which states that each step in progress is based upon one that has preceded it. Just what was the matter and what is the matter with the orthodox courses in history?

To present the matter bluntly, most teachers of history will agree that history has been badly taught because the majority of teachers know so little history. History is a changing, a growing, subject, and the teachers, even when they began with a reasonable equipment, have had neither the time nor the opportunity to grow with it. History, itself, has developed in the past decade or so more than has the mass of suggested substitutes. The history teacher must have a broad training in history, must have developed something of a philosophy of history, and must have a live interest in it. Even one or two orthodox college courses will not suffice. There is needed a continuing interest which will instill vitality into its study. For most teachers these conditions are missing. In viewing in the mind's eye the glories of the new dispensation which is to come when composite courses based upon social problems have displaced history, let us give a passing glance to the pleasing view which might be presented when we have history taught by a body of teachers each of whom is historically grounded with a living interest in the subject.

RELATIVE VALUES OF HISTORY AND SOCIAL STUDIES COURSES.

A move to abandon history must be based upon one of the following propositions: Either the new course, in its subject matter, presents material superior in societal value to that presented by history, or the teacher problem is such that the new course can, in general, be well taught, while history is hopeless. With reference to the latter point, the indications are all in favor of history. The new course demands much more training on the part of the teacher than does the old, and demands much more skill and initiative in charting a path through an unbroken region. Little is being done in the beginning of this preparation. Even if we knew of what such a preparation should consist, it would be decades before the

supply of teachers, trained in its technique, would begin to make itself felt. Conversely, more and more well-trained teachers of history are taking their places in the school rooms every year. We are getting a body of teachers who have the power to get out of history that which it may contain. There is no indication that the substitute for history will be taught as satisfactorily as is history. The chances are that in most cases it will be very badly taught. We must consider the problem of teaching in the light of the general school situation and not in the light of a few specialists whose teaching skill is unique.

As to the relative values of the subject matter, it is the opinion of the present writer that history, as such, offers every value that can be claimed for the new régime, including vital interest. History is not now the learning of an orthodox body of fact. It is a living subject. It is concerned with all of the activities of groups of people. It is social and industrial as well as political. It treats of every problem which is now confronting the group, but it arrives at it by a logical route. It develops the same or greater interest in societal life; it has a greater ability to develop the habit of weighing evidence in that the process is begun with reference to matters which are not now in the field of controversy. In addition to these, history has at least two elements which are lacking in courses which abandon the chronological element. One is this vital fact of continuity, the conception that things were not always what they are, and that they became what they are through a slow change. There is a sense of orderly succession of events which is of extreme value. Then there is the idea that movements and problems cannot be isolated, that societal growth must be likened to a rope with strands thoroughly inter-twined, rather than as a string of beads easily separated into its parts. The fault in the teaching of history has been that it did not keep pace with the possibilities of and the growth of the subject. Why shall we throw it overboard just when we are beginning to see its possibilities and just when we are beginning to get a supply of teachers who can make it supremely effective?

SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE INVESTIGATION.

This does not mean that all investigations and experiments should be given up in the light of the hypothesis presented here. We can profit by all the light that is brought to the subject. The point of the writer, however, is that, as far as he has been able to hear, those who desire to do original work in the subject of teaching Social Studies have begun by casting history by the wayside, to greater or less degree. A group of teachers brought to his attention within the last month a desire to do something constructive in the field. Their plan was to plunge into an experiment upon a combination course, merging history, geography, and civics. No fault is to be found with this. The wonder is that someone does not see that the case is not closed. We need some definite and serious work on the possibility of making the teaching of history meet all of the requirements which we are setting up for the Social Studies. In history

investigations we have pretty largely contented ourselves with a decision as to what to call the subjects that are to be taught in each semester, and as to how many pages of the text in use are to be covered in that semester. We should want to know just what can be successfully taught, and how best it can be taught. We want to know what elementary concepts we are demanding which the children do not have. We want to know how long a time ought to be spent upon the various topics in order to have them taught well. There is a well grounded suspicion that all of the texts for the Junior High School are twice as inclusive as they should be. We want to know what topics have great societal values so that they may be expanded, and what topics have little so that they may be contracted. Were we to add these questions to our list of investigations, it is possible and probable that a real educational course in history could be developed, a course with all of the values of any or all of the substitutes offered, a course with a number of unique values, and a course for the teaching of which we are already on the way to secure a fairly adequate supply of teachers.

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Making Capital of Interest in History Classes

REGINALD STEVENS KIMBALL, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, WORCESTER, MASS.

"You historians expect too much of your students," said a man who is a successful teacher of another subject in my presence not long ago. "Instead of being contented with their getting a general idea of our nation's history, you insist that they delve deeply into details. For myself, I shall never forget the awful days I put in in trying to understand the articles of confederation, and I couldn't pass an examination on them today, I'm sure. What does your average student need of political history and the elements of constitutional law? Why don't you give them something interesting instead of boring them to death with details about the necessity of adopting the Constitution?"

In these days when the Constitution is so little respected, if we are to believe reports from certain quarters, that fact alone might serve as an apologia for teaching the arguments advanced by Hamilton, Madison, and Jay. But that would be granting the premise implied if not actually stated in the quotation above. Certainly not all of the story of the founding of our federal government is devoid of interest; if the right incidents are chosen as illustrations, the closing years of the eighteenth century will be found to be not so very different from the early years of the twentieth. Dissensions among leaders, disquiet on the part of the populace, diffidence in unexpected quarters are common factors. The serio-comic optimism which may prove our only salvation in these trying times may best be secured through an investigation of the similar conditions of a period now sufficiently remote to allow of unpartisan analysis.

Here, I imagine, is the rub! Analysis is popularly supposed to kill interest. Properly viewed, properly introduced, properly guided, it may well stimulate it. A cake is no less delicious to a good cook because she has been told the ingredients that have been put into it; rather, if she be a real cook, she will try to find out for herself its component parts long before the creator of the delicacy is ready to impart the desired information. In the field of history, however, analysis has been so far misused, as busy-work or instruments of punishment, that the benefits to be derived are too frequently obscured. A frosting is essential if the values are not to be altogether relinquished.

Soon after hearing the critical comment which serves as the text for this article, I found myself again approaching the time of year when the critical period of American history was to be studied. With the suggestive queries still ringing in my ears and memories of former politely bored classes flashing through my mind, I resolved upon a new approach. So happy was my solution in its working out that I have been impelled to pass it on as a suggestion to others.

The experiment was made with a group of freshmen in a four-year normal course leading to the

degree of Bachelor of Education. The same treatment might well be used with little modification in the upper years of the high school course. While it may be argued that more time is required, if the students are to do full justice to their task, than would ordinarily be given to the period, it is fairly evident that the gaining in comprehension will tend to do away with some of the monotonous drill-periods which not infrequently accompany the study of our nation's earliest years of independence.

A re-examination of the standard authorities on the period confirmed my belief that collateral reading, because so slightly guided and so frequently misunderstood, was apt to be of little value in connection with this particular topic. By relegating this to more favorable parts of the course, I gained the necessary time for putting my scheme into operation. The substitute, however, strange as it may seem, was COLLATERAL READING. I drew upon sources too frequently untapped in elementary and introductory courses—the *American Statesmen series*. It so happened that there were in the first group (statesmen before the civil war) just as many titles as there were students in the class.

Assigning the subjects by lot, I explained to the girls that they were to read the books through once simply to get a general idea of the man about whom the author was writing and again to get a view of the period in which the man lived, his surroundings and his contributions. When the reading was at length under way, I issued a form for guidance in reporting upon the book:

1. Name of reviewer
2. Name of subject of biography
3. Nationality
4. Position held
5. Title of volume
6. Number of pages
7. Author
8. Position held by author
9. Publisher
10. Date of first publication of this edition
11. Opinion of book (concise)
12. Main points in life of subject (OUTLINE)
13. Contributions to welfare of nation (OUTLINE)
14. Claims to greatness (EVALUATE)
15. Points of weakness (EVALUATE)
16. Incidents lending themselves to storytelling (CLASSIFY according to age or grade groups)
17. Incidents lending themselves to dramatization (CLASSIFY)
18. Quotations chosen with view to showing style of author or bringing out important or interesting facts
19. Points suggested as being worthy of further research
20. Ten-minute essay designed to make subject a living being, worthy the attention and interest of every member of the class

In connection with the last point, the syllabus stated that each student was "responsible to the class

for becoming as well acquainted as possible with the historical personage assigned," with the further instructions, "Whenever events with which he is connected are referred to in class, you should be ready to contribute reliable information."

The "points suggested as being worthy of further research" were in many cases just the points which would have been looked upon as "dull" and "dry" if forced upon the class by the teacher. Because a man who had become a real acquaintance, although of ink and paper instead of flesh and blood, was connected with the events, the research was made more willingly and in some few instances even eagerly. The discussions in class were of a more personal nature than could otherwise have been the case, and—a point which is worth some attention—the question on the

mid-year examination paper having to do with the critical period was uniformly the best-answered.

Some of the biographies presented in class were unquestionably lacking in interest, but not more so than other papers submitted during the year by the same students. At such times, naturally, the attention of the class flagged, but the enthusiasm and interest manifested during most of the readings made for a mastery of the intricacies of the problems of that time, with the by-product of intimate knowledge of the lives and ambitions of more than twenty of the nation's greatest men.

An extension of this plan to include other than statesmen and more periods than the two or three covered in this experiment is promising even greater success at the moment of writing.

How to Add Vitality to Civics Instruction Practical Experiments in Four Schools

I. The Civics-Senate

BY BYRON F. FIELD, M.A.,
CULVER MILITARY ACADEMY

Although there still seems to be much difference of opinion as to the purposes of the teaching of history in secondary schools, such is hardly the case as regards Civics. Few, if any, would take issue with the statement that Civics is a study of political problems, and a training for citizenship. How often these praiseworthy aims are lost sight of can be seen by a visit to many of our Civics classes.

Practical application of any principle is always of inestimable value. How frequently it is not accomplished! How many of the mathematics students, clever in glibly reciting formulæ, and expounding theorems, are utterly at sea when faced with problems involving the same formulæ? How many students in our own field of history, accurate in every detail, when questioned as to past facts, fail utterly to forecast anything like similar results when similar reasons, occurring at another period, are suggested to them? In Civics, how many students, after the semester is completed, have more than a hazy idea of "what it is all about," and are actually prepared to defend certain of our governmental institutions for their own worth, or to criticize others because of their weaknesses?

No study enters into everyday life more than that of politics. More time is spent in discussing political affairs, finding fault with this or that political phenomenon, telling how this or that ought to be done (on no sound basis whatever), than on almost any other topic of conversation. Newspaper and magazine articles are written, and read by thousands, the framework or principal thesis of which could be successfully destroyed by any person who had done a few months' genuine study in Civics.

Literary societies may be found in almost every school, having as their chief purposes for being, a discussion of current problems, and a drill in parliamentary usages. Despite the efforts of faculty advisors, the work seldom appeals to more than a limited number of the so-called "prosy" students, the group not generally found in the more social organizations.

RELATION OF THE SENATE TO THE CIVICS COURSE.

The Civics-Senate, as it has been operated in Culver, implies the study of some textbook and of the Constitution as basic; and it then actually uses the facts obtained in a miniature Senate. Upwards of twenty students, largely of the highest grade in school, comprise the membership of the Civics class. They are generally among the most mature boys in the Academy. Since the class period is but forty-five minutes, delays are kept to the minimum. One semester is given to Civics—five days a week. The study of the course, as a whole, consumes approximately the first nine weeks, the Senate occupies about six, and the remaining period, about a week, is for review. The first period introduces the student to the basis for politics, and its actual expression in political action. It reveals to him the customary phenomena of government, from the chief executive to the least official in the city precinct, or county township. It involves illustration from personal acquaintance or study for each of the various phases. Not more than half of any period is ever spent on drill, and that half hour is always understood to be the groundwork for the half hour spent in solving practical problems involving these same salient facts. Fact and illustration follow each other in close succession.

ORGANIZATION OF THE SENATE.

At the end of the first nine weeks, the student sees what a live thing politics is, what a supremely im-

portant place it holds in every day life. The student is then given a chance to illustrate practically how he would like to improve on present institutions, or to defend them against radical onslaughts. The class is organized as a miniature United States Senate. It should be said in passing that the national Senate serves as the best model at Culver because this school draws students from many states, and from cities as well as towns. The same general arrangement could be used in public high schools, if one desired to study intensively state or city politics, using as the model the legislative chamber for that particular governmental unit.

Each student is appointed to represent the part of the nation nearest to that in which he normally resides, or in which he has the most vital interest. He is expected, for purposes of debate, either to align himself with a particular party, or announce himself as an independent. A list of the most important committees is then suggested by the instructor with class approval, and, similarly, the number of members for each committee is decided upon. Ordinarily a half dozen committees are all that can be conveniently operated. More than that would make the membership of each so small as to inhibit debate. Committees include those to consider: foreign affairs, national defense, interstate commerce, finance, and judiciary. The usual membership of a committee is five. When there is no work on a day devoted to committee discussion for a given group, it joins with another. The party having the majority obtains majority representation on each committee, and other parties obtain representation proportionally. Caucuses of each group follow, where the party group selects from among its own number those whom it wishes for representatives on the various committees. These choices have very generally seemed to be based on considerable forethought, rather than the mere wish to serve with a particular friend.

For general organization, it has been found preferable to divide the duties of President and Secretary among all the members of the class. The experience gained in either of these positions is not inconsiderable. They are appointed daily by the instructor from among the members who do not have bills scheduled to be debated on that particular day.

Two preliminary studies have been found of advantage before transforming the class into the Senate—one a brief analysis and memorization of the most important rules or parliamentary drill, and the second a survey of the United States Senate, as at present constituted. For the parliamentary drill, the instructor carefully goes through a standard drill book, such as *Roberts*, choosing a rather limited list of rules which are most likely to be involved during the work. These, and their order of preference, method of amendment, and so on, are mimeographed, so that each member may have a copy at hand at all times. The idea is that parliamentary pyrotechnics are never expected to subvert the major purpose of the course.

ACTIVITIES OF THE SENATE.

For the survey of the United States Senate, the author wrote letters to each of the present Senators, asking them for a list of such legislation as they considered of most pressing need, and also for any suggestions they might care to make for the operation of a "model Senate." Over fifty replies were received, at least thirty of which were of genuine use in furnishing subjects for study and discussion. From them, also, suggestions were forthcoming as to alterations in Senate procedure, the value of which became apparent as the work continued. From them, in addition, the students gained some conception of the genuine importance of such a position as that of Senator. The answers to letters written by the students themselves were highly prized and gave a more personal interest in the whole plan.

After the preliminary organization has been completed, each student hands in one or more bills or set of resolutions to the President. The material for these bills is obtained largely from current periodicals. After presentation, and reading by the Secretary, they are referred to the proper committee, or, if a sufficient number of the members desire, they are retained for debate by a "committee of the whole." It may be noted that not all the proceedings follow the Senate rules strictly, but as much so as are expedient. Each class reviews the rules under which the preceding Civics-Senate operated, and accepts or amends them, thus saving considerable time.

The class is then divided into committees, where discussions of the bills referred to them, occur. In order to be sure that each bill gets back to the floor of the Senate, a committee may not "kill" a bill, but may return it with an unfavorable recommendation, if it desires. Whether the committee recommends or disapproves passage, it must give its reasons for doing so.

On the next day after the committee meetings, the regular routine parliamentary program begins with reading of the minutes of the preceding meeting, their acceptance, with or without change; presentation of new bills, their reading and reference; reports of committees; discussion of old business; new business; adjournment.

CHECKS UPON THE WORK.

Obviously, the work of the instructor in such a course is one of unobtrusive supervision, and as limited as possible. One might think at first that this would be a wonderful opportunity for a windbag to orate to the detriment of his wiser, but more reticent fellow-students. That does not follow, for when the votes are taken, the students have been found to vote pretty generally as their better judgment guided them, and they very effectually shut off those who attempt to monopolize the floor.

At the beginning of the hour each day a student collects slips from all the members of the class on which are written the material which they have read since the last meeting: source, topic, pages, and author, and the time spent in preparation. If the instructor has reason to think that a student is

bluffing, he may detain him after class and quiz him on some report. Surprisingly early the students learn that they cannot successfully and intelligently defend a measure or attack another, in committee or on the floor in debate, unless they have spent considerable hard work on it. Whoever is the "father" of a measure is expected to know more about it than any of the rest, and must, if possible, effect its passage.

Many of the most pointed, best argued debates one can listen to are these semi-extemporaneous affairs. The extent to which material studied with the text as the basis in the early months of the course is later used, depends directly on the application of the student to that part of the work. Those who were weak or backward then find themselves daily faced with the necessity of referring to the text for this or that material. Dozens of instances arise in which some ardent nationalist proposes a measure only to find it contested on the ground that it infringes upon states rights, particularly the "police power" of the states.

Log-rolling and senatorial courtesy appear, but have to be gently, but firmly, ruled out by the instructor as unsportsmanlike. The thing which is impressed on the students from the start is, that here is an opportunity to study about some worth while political project, then to try to get it through in a parliamentary manner, against all reasonable objections.

A leading periodical is subscribed for by all the students to keep them in touch with recent happenings, while other magazines are consulted constantly. When a matter of unusual local interest arises, special measures are taken to provide for its discussion. The impetus for all debates comes from the students, aided by hints from the instructor.

The instructor sits in an out of the way place and says just as little as possible during the progress of the Senate, being careful, however, to take notes on what is being said and done. These he uses during the closing few minutes of the daily period, when he suggests how parliamentary difficulties which have occurred might have been obviated, how some argument which seemed unanswerable might have been surmounted successfully, how some particular argument, which sounded logical enough, was faulty. He seldom, if ever, attempts to criticize a vote on the ground that it was ill advised, but may indicate that if more of the facts had been available it might have been different.

Tests may or may not continue during this period. The author has found the "every day fact" test most useful throughout the course. Most of the questions are introduced by a quotation or paragraph from some current periodical or newspaper. These are ordinarily either of a disputation type, or a proposal for a change somewhere in our government. The student is asked to give an estimate of the quotation, based on his knowledge of the thing discussed, and for an actual discussion of the existing arrangement which it is proposed to alter. Three-fourths of the questions are of this type, the others being of the straight definition type.

The average student takes a keen interest in this work, much more than in the usual type of Civics instruction. Its value is many sided, it aids a student to think on his feet; to organize his material; to search out pertinent quotations; to argue effectively; and finally, because of the very nature of the course, to make use of the facts of Civics in such a way that his interest will continue after the course is finished.

II. The School City—A Civics Project

BY MAY VAN KIRK, SUPERIOR, WISCONSIN.

Several years ago the Civics class in our school was studying city government, making a special investigation of Commission form, the type used in our city. The class was much interested, wanting to know details as to the powers and duties of the Commissioners. A trip was made to the City Hall to see the Commissioners at work.

This particular class was composed of a group of "live wires," so full of energy that unless the force was directed into useful channels it was apt to cause serious difficulties. One day some members of the class had transgressed rather badly some of the school rules. It was decided that the class itself should take up the matter as its own particular problem and decide what punishment should follow. After much investigation and discussion the matter was settled in a very happy and satisfactory manner.

The class were then led to see that when they did this type of work they were actual citizens in a small community. In other words, they were putting their Civics into action. This idea appealed to the class and a lively discussion followed. Someone suggested that the Civics class might become a unit which could more actively help in conducting affairs for the entire school. Finally the opinion was voiced that if the entire Junior High was organized still better results could be accomplished.

Some years previous to this the school had been very successfully organized, but with the introduction of the Junior High these clubs had been dropped because they didn't fit the new order of things. The Civics class next discussed the type of organization which would be most beneficial and the suggestion was made that the city government might be used as a model.

A delegation was sent to the principal to talk over the feasibility of such a plan. She enthusiastically agreed that the idea was splendid. A committee composed of some class members, the principal, and the Civics teacher drew up plans for the project.

It was decided that a mass meeting should be called of all the Junior High students to present the plan to that body. One of the City Commissioners was invited to speak to the students on the subject of Commission Government in the city. He carefully listed the departments and duties. In our city there are three departments, (1) Protection and Health, (2) Public Works, (3) City Hall and Education.

After this talk some members of the Civics class

pointed out that the work of the city and school could be paralleled and a Commission be established in the school. The Student body voted to adopt this form of organization. The Civics class was given power to act as a committee to put this form of government into operation. After listing all the duties that the Commission might help direct, it was decided that three Commissioners were not enough to carry on the work. Six was the final number decided upon. It was then possible to have a girl and boy selected from each grade for Commissioner.

The laws of Wisconsin were consulted in regard to city elections and it was decided to carry on our election according to State Law. A group of children were sent to consult with the Election Board of our ward as to proper procedure. The Chairman of the Board contributed an old registration book for use in registering our voters. A "City Clerk" was appointed. Groups of pupils from the class went to the different rooms to instruct the other students in regard to registration, filing nomination papers, primary election and the finals.

The English teacher co-operated and those classes did much valuable work discussing the type of persons best fitted for Commissioner. Some time was spent talking over good and bad qualities in officials.

Nominations were duly filed, voters registered and candidates were announced. Ballots were prepared by the class and primary day set. Electioneering in the form of posters was next in order. Here the Art classes co-operated. It was quite common to see posters with such wording as: "Vote for John Brown. He is honest, industrious, dependable. He is tactful. He will make an ideal 9th Grade Commissioner." These were posted in the halls.

Primary day dawned. The polls were opened by the Chairman of the Board and voting was carried on in an orderly manner. The members of the Election Board found it necessary to caution voters against electioneering inside the polls. Two booths had been built so that the Australian ballot method was adhered to.

Between the primary and regular election the electioneering took on another form. The English classes wrote speeches in favor of the different candidates. The best speech prepared for each candidate was selected and the writers prepared to deliver them before a mass meeting of voters. The classes insisted that no "mud slinging" be permitted. Superior qualities of each candidate were rather set forth. The finals took place in regular form and the first Commissioners were chosen. It is interesting to note that the students had chosen candidates wisely, officers had been selected according to merit.

The Commissioner's duties were as follows:

1. Departments: A. Fire, Health, Good Order. B. Welfare Department. C. Finance and Entertainment, Garden.

2. *Duties of Fire and Health Departments:* To take charge of fire drills. Have large boys in charge of drills.

To inspect building for fire hazards.

To keep gym clean and sanitary.

To aid Physical Training teacher.

To help organize athletics.

To take charge of playground apparatus.

Duties of Good Order Department:

To help keep order good in:

Marching, Playground, Halls, Assembly, and Basement.

To form a consulting committee to confer with principal to make order better.

To act as an investigating committee in cases of serious misdemeanor.

Duties of Welfare Department:

Interior.

To keep neat and clean:

Halls, Landings, Office, Cloakrooms, Library, Basement.

To appoint room housekeeper.

To appoint a librarian.

Exterior.

To keep yards neat.

To report necessary repairs on playground.

To take charge of clean-up campaigns.

To keep fences in good shape.

To help improve city parks and boulevards.

Duties of Finance and Entertainment Department:

To take charge of:

Parties, Magazine subscriptions, Programs, Music for marching, Paper drives, Candy Sales.

Duties of Garden Department:

In Winter:

Care for room plants.

In Spring:

Prepare and set out flower beds.

Plant bulbs.

Organize summer garden club.

In Summer:

Care for school garden.

Take charge of School Fair exhibits.

Soon after the election a Commission meeting was held and departments assigned. The Commissioners in turn selected committees which had charge of various lines of work. The ninth grade boy was selected as Mayor.

The public welfare and civic duties were stressed rather than the good order, although that had a prominent part to play.

After the plan had been in operation for some time the following results were noted:

The interior department took charge of room housekeeping, having different groups of girls take turns washing boards, dusting erasers, keeping book shelves neat. The librarian fulfilled her duties. The halls, office, and basement took on a neater appearance.

The Garden Committee took charge of making the yard beautiful. Big flower beds were planted, a lovely lattice work fence was erected to train vines over, shrubbery was planted. During the following

summer, groups of children assembled every week to work on the garden.

Several clean-up campaigns were conducted, not only of school premises, but also in parks and boulevards in our section of the city.

The Health Committee co-operated with the physical training department to look after clean athletics, proper postures, cleanliness, etc. Campaigns for the proper food and exercise were conducted.

The Fire Committee did good service in taking charge of drills and inspecting for fire hazards.

The Good Order Committee checked up on marching, and order on the playground. They acted as a consulting committee to the principal in all matters pertaining to good order. On several occasions offenders were brought up before the committee and questioned as to reasons for offense. They were given much good advice and the group decided what punishment should be inflicted. It was seldom that the same offenders were brought before the committee twice, for the child dreaded the censure of his classmates. The members of the Good Order Committee were given much help also, for often one of the committee was himself a school "Problem." Serving on this committee seemed to impress the necessity for good order.

One of the finest features of the work was the annual meeting of the organization. The "Mayor" presided. A report was given by each Commissioner of the work his committee had done. We were amazed at the list of accomplishments. The Good Order Committee had the least to report for we found that as the Civic activities increased the number of discipline cases which needed to come before the Investigating Committee decreased. At this meeting each teacher who had been selected by the Commissioners as faculty adviser at the beginning of the year, reported her opinion of the work done. This afforded an opportunity for the adviser to give the school a vision of what could be done in that department. This meeting was held at the beginning of the new year and served as an inspiration for greater effort that year.

III. Using the Preferential Ballot in a High School Election

BY MARY E. KENNEY, HIGH SCHOOL, CORRY, PA.

The Student Council—our student organization for participation in school government—and the faculty, in a joint meeting, had decided to have a general school election for President of the student body, and ex-officio presiding officer of the Student Council. This is the first year that we have had any definite organization, and we are gradually working out details as the need arises rather than attempting to put

into operation a scheme already elaborated. So far we had had a council composed of representatives from each home room, which met with the faculty, and discussed common problems. Now, we felt the need of a head for this group.

The Council members brought the question of a school election before their respective home rooms at the next home room meeting, where it was discussed. At a later meeting, candidates from each home room were nominated, making eleven candidates in the field. The Senior home room instructed their representative to suggest at the next meeting of the Council, the use of the preferential ballot rather than the usual ballot, since it was highly probable that with eleven candidates running for the office, no one would receive a majority vote.

In the meantime electioneering had already begun. Some Sophomores suggested a fusion of the five Sophomore rooms in favor of one candidate—"Bud" Sloan—who was endorsed by the class. But the Sophomores could not elect him alone, for there were only 140 in their class, out of an enrollment of 370. Someone then suggested a deal with the Freshmen—110 in number—by which, in return for their support this year, they might have the office next year. But the Frosh proved wary of political promises made a year in advance, also the Juniors, their sister class, were trying to work a deal with them. The latter class had also fused all the home rooms in favor of one Russel Downey, and, in a joint meeting with the Freshmen, had attempted to get support for him. But there was division in their own ranks, however, for the girls of the class were gathering around the girl candidate from Room 8, who was recognized by the whole school as worthy of the office.

Meanwhile, hand bills, dodgers, cards, and other printed matter for Downey, and for Sloan, began to appear, and campaign committees were formed for each candidate. The Council had decided that "minute" men—or women—might speak for the candidate whose campaign they were managing. These speakers, it may be said, learned valuable lessons in crowd psychology. The candidate from the Senior room was the first to post copies of his platform in the school halls, which by this time resembled windows of vacant stores before election time. He advocated more athletics for girls, the cultivation of the "hello" spirit, co-operation with the faculty in financing the new auditorium stage, and a referendum on the quarter holiday—a mooted question. Other platforms, more or less similar, began to appear, and all sorts of blackboard signs, many of them very refreshing: "Vote for Downey, He's 100 Per Cent. Christian" (in a Freshman room); "Vote for Cynthia May, she stands for quantity," or "Show that you know a good man when you see one."

One day, the activities period was taken for a mass meeting, at which the candidates themselves were to speak, and show where they stood. The meeting was as orderly as any political rally, and the speakers far better than most I have heard at such times. They told what they believed in, and what they would do if

elected. It took courage for the girl candidates to address that meeting, but they did it ably; and I wish that women who are too timid to use their political privileges, might have heard them. One candidate—a boy—tried the old-fashioned speech, the tickle-your-funny-bone, and the ladies—God-bless-'em kind. I watched the faces of his audience. His speech didn't take. They laughed, but that was all.

Meanwhile, the Student Council and the faculty were meeting to work out details of the election. The representative from the Senior home room announced that his room recommended the use of the preferential ballot, which permitted the voter to express his first, second, and third choices; and in this way, the candidate elected was practically certain of having a majority of the votes cast. This suggestion was adopted, and it was further agreed that the Problems of Democracy class would have complete charge of the election.

The next day that class spent its period in working out details. They decided to divide the school into two wards by dropping an imaginary line down through the middle of the building, and to establish a polling place in each end of the building on the second floor. A boy, who is working his way by selling aluminum, agreed to furnish the ballot boxes. Two Election Boards, each consisting of a judge and two inspectors, were elected, and in order to prevent repeating, the class resolved to get complete registration lists from each home room Secretary, and check off a student's name as soon as he had voted. Members of the class volunteered to explain the preferential ballot in the home rooms, and speakers from this group were later given this opportunity. The fact that only 13 ballots out of 320 cast were spoiled shows that they must have done their work well.

Later, the Election Boards met with the teacher of the class and adopted the following rules, which were posted on the bulletin board:

ELECTION RULES.

1. Polls open 8.30 Wednesday morning, close 11.30.
2. No electioneering on the second floor to be permitted.
3. No loitering around the polls.
4. The following ballots will be disqualified:
 - a. When only one choice is expressed.
 - b. When all choices are for one candidate.
 - c. When any erasing or unnecessary marking is done on the ballot.

The result of the election will be published in the *Evening Journal*.

(Signed) ELECTION BOARD.

The school paper, *The Hi Times*, which appeared the Friday before, in addition to carrying paid ads for some of the candidates, had contained a sample ballot, with an explanation of it.

The regular ballots were mimeographed by a committee of commercial students from the Problems of Democracy class, and were locked up in the office. About 50 samples on yellow paper were distributed among the students. The names of the candidates were arranged alphabetically.

On the morning of Election, the Board arrived early, and arranged the polling places, placing a table behind a screen for the voter to mark his ballot (even tying pencils to it), and another table for the officials. The judge was to hand out the ballots, while the inspectors were to check off the name of the voter, and see that he deposited his ballot in the box. By 8.45, some early arrivals were lined up to vote. As each student came up to the table, he gave his name and the number of his room, which was checked off, then he received a ballot which he took behind the screen to mark, and, on coming out, deposited it in the box. Watchers from the different classes were present.

By 11.15, all who were in school had voted, the Board having sent a Watcher to each teacher to check upon absentees. There had been no special rush, many people having voted in their vacant periods, and no disorder was reported.

Then came the count. The Board, the watchers, and the teacher in charge locked themselves in one of the history rooms, opened the ballot boxes, and began the tally (320 votes had been cast). It was found, as was to be expected, that no one had a majority of first choices, Homer Fleming, the Senior candidate, having a plurality of 125. The second choices were then counted, with the result that Mr. Fleming was declared elected, with a majority of 187 votes.

After the Thanksgiving vacation, the Council and faculty held another meeting to make arrangements for the inauguration of the new President. With the advice of a former teacher, the following program was worked out, and impressively carried through on Friday, December 7th.

The faculty and Council sat in a semi-circle on the stage, with the new President, Principal Brown, Superintendent Hemstreet, Mrs. Barnes, President of the Board of Education, and Mr. Manley, Secretary, in a smaller semi-circle before a table. After the singing of the school song, Principal Brown read the Scriptural lesson, found in I Kings where Solomon prayed for wisdom to rule his people. Then announcing that it was now his privilege to administer the oath of office to the newly chosen President of the student body, he held out the Bible to Homer Fleming, who, reverently, placing his right hand on it, slowly repeated after him the old Athenian oath, slightly modified. When that was over, a student came from the audience, and handing the new President a red rose, pledged him the strength of the student body, and the Glee Club responded:

"The strength of youth we bring,
Oh, hear us shout and sing,
Strength to you, strength to you,
Our strength to you we bring."

Other students followed, pledging co-operation, the best brain and thought, and loyalty, and bringing roses in appropriate colors. After each pledge, the Glee Club responded. Lastly, a faculty member, bringing roses of all four colors, made the same four pledges on behalf of the faculty.

Then the President made his inaugural address.

He spoke for twenty minutes, renewing his campaign pledges and pleading for co-operation to make Corry High a cleaner and a better school. He reviewed the progress made since he was a freshman, and promised his best efforts to carry it on to even greater heights. He urged the right kind of school spirit—the kind that puts self last—and fearlessly laid the blame for football defeats upon the absence of such a spirit in the team. He himself, by the way, was on the team.

Of all our students, Homer Fleming is the one best fitted for his high position. He is a clean, absolutely trustworthy young man, with high principles, which he is not afraid to practice.

In scholarship, he is a good steady plugger, though not a brilliant student. But we are always sure of his best in our classes. He is prominent in all athletics, and, above all, has the liking of all the students. Nevertheless, it quite restored our faith in democracy, to find that the students would choose a boy of such a type for their President. The solid, sterling qualities do not always receive their reward at the ballot box.

The inauguration closed with the singing of America the Beautiful, and to one teacher, at least, the prayer for America in that song:

"God mend thine every flaw,
Confirm thy soul in self-control,
Thy liberty in law."

Seemed nearer of realization through the vision and the efforts of this generation of boys and girls.

IV. An Elementary School Election

BY VIRGINIA STONE, PRINCIPAL ELEMENTARY SCHOOL, AND LENA C. VAN BIBBER, DEPARTMENT OF HISTORY AND CIVICS, MARYLAND STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, TOWSON, MARYLAND

The need for an Elementary School Treasurer came when we found that we had made over \$200.00 to use in building a small house on the school grounds. The children in a country school nearby had made a building of about the size of a small chicken house, to use as a playhouse. Through an arrangement with the Normal School, the school truck took each of the seven grades in the Elementary Training School to see this house. The children were fired with a desire to build one of their own—"only much bigger." When told that they could have as large a building as they could construct for themselves, and as they could pay for with money they earned themselves, they began to make plans for a large building, and a large sum of money. The house, about completed, made through the combined efforts of all the grades, is 10 feet by 20 feet, and will be used as a school library.

Every worth-while activity of life can lead on to a further worth-while activity. Having made money, the need for the care of it arose. How do other people care for money? It was decided to select a school Treasurer, and a Secretary, who could be responsible for all money transactions to be made with

the children's funds. To avoid too great a responsibility for children, the Principal kept the money in an account in her own name, signing all checks; otherwise, it was entirely cared for by the Treasurer and Secretary. Letters sent out had an O. K., either from the Principal, or from the teacher of the grade.

The planning of the election was given over to a small committee taken from a senior class in history and civics in the Normal School proper. Their first task was to make themselves acquainted with the details of elections,—just how, in every particular, they are conducted in real life. This seems an important principle to establish in civic training,—to form lasting habits through conformity to actualities. The students were most keenly interested. They read books, and articles in magazines, and, of still more importance, they interviewed men who had acted as judges of elections. Finally, they submitted to their class and teachers, for criticism and revision, a carefully devised plan for nominations, electioneering, and voting.

The machinery now was put in motion in the elementary school. The sixth and seventh grade girls and boys came together in a "mass meeting" to consider the choice of the Treasurer—to them a seriously important matter. One of the Normal School students presided. It was autumn, elections were in the air. Children had heard at home the coming election discussed. Without much guiding, someone proposed that the Treasurer be chosen by voting, that several candidates should be put up, and, in this way, the favorite selected. The idea proved contagious. There was much enthusiasm, and a strong wish to begin at once by appointing a nominating committee.

This was the first year. The second autumn, and the third, found interest in the annual election on the increase. This last year the number of officials has increased to four. The children gathered as they had on prior occasions, and their first consideration was to find out, through general discussion, what qualifications should be possessed by the various officers for whom they were going to cast their ballots. The presiding officer directed this discussion, but the children themselves showed both initiative and good sense in what they had to say. What kind of person will serve us best as Treasurer, as Secretary? Lists of necessary qualities were written on the board as instructions for the nominating committee about to be chosen by popular vote. These had been previously decided upon in the grade rooms. The qualities ranged from the first grade estimate of a Treasurer, who should be "honest, good in arithmetic, of good disposition, and careful in keeping accounts," to the seventh grade's analysis of men, who had proved their worth in public positions, and who were "honest, accurate, courteous, co-operative, responsible, courageous."

Presently there was trouble. Someone, gaining the eye of the chairman, had an objection to offer. Did they exactly realize what was happening? Hadn't they become somewhat confused? Were they not using, for the nominating committee, the very people

whom they would want named as the candidates for office? Think what might be the result? The strongest ones would be serving on the nominating committee, where they would not be able to write their own names on the ballot as candidates for office! This brought a laugh. What was to be done? One voice proposed the remedy. "Let's begin all over again." Everyone agreed cheerfully, and so it went on. Ten names in all were proposed. Of these, a nominating committee of five was intrusted with this very responsible duty. It had all been entered into with the keenest enjoyment, but also with determination, and seriousness.

Democracy was now at work. The committee came together almost immediately. A consulting Senior was present at all times to give information and advice, and to see to it that the instructions of the convention were always in mind. One point here must be noted. It was clearly understood that officials, such as had been agreed upon, must necessarily give both time and energy to their respective positions. Therefore, in order to see to it that no weak and incapable child was given burdens too heavy for feeble shoulders, and that no popular yet inefficient person was selected, each name was carefully examined and passed on by the class room teacher before finally decided upon. To illustrate how this worked, a small boy was named as a candidate for Secretary. Immediately the teacher sent in specimens of handwriting, and, as a result, the name was eliminated.

The slate was now ready. Two appropriate nominees were presented for each office. The nomination convention assembled. The chairman of the nominating committee read the slate. There was some criticism. Too few boys had been named, and there was a strong feeling that such discrimination was not representative of the school, and not fair. Here was the chance for nominations from the floor, and two were permitted for each office. But now a new difficulty appeared. The resulting ballot, with four nominees for each office, was so long that it would prove confusing for little first and second graders; this community was essentially democratic. Even the smallest child had a vote. To cure this trouble, the citizens agreed to eliminate, then and there, through the process of voting, all but two candidates for each office. The thing was quickly and painlessly done, and the ballot, in accordance with recent ideas, was "shortened."

Things, in and about the Elementary School, now took on an air of great activity. There were various committees formed; one for making posters giving the names of the candidates, and others to give the information of the polling place, and the hours for voting.

Another committee planned to conduct the campaign for each candidate, and to see that campaign speeches had been prepared. On a certain day stump speakers, defending and vouching for the various candidates, went from room to room urging upon voters the desirability of supporting favorite candidates—some-

times zest was added to the speech as each candidate spoke for himself, and assured his hearers that should he be elected, school affairs would receive careful and expert attention. Thus the fires of enthusiasm were kept burning.

One of these posters read:

NOTICE
POLLS OPEN
In
Mrs. McCord's Room
At
9.30 A. M.
POLLS CLOSE
At
11 A. M.

Here are several typical campaign speeches, and the ballot used in the last election:

My Friends:

I want to assure you of my deep appreciation of the honor shown me by the Improvement Club in voting me as one of the nominees for the position as Treasurer of the Elementary School.

If you give me further honor of electing me to the position of Treasurer, I can only say that I will use every effort to perform my duties faithfully; that a very careful record will be kept of any money entrusted to my care. My one desire, my friends, is that the best candidate might win.

If my rival is victorious, I assure you my hand will be extended in congratulation.

Friends and Fellow Students:

You know why I am here. I came to ask you to vote, at the coming election, for Douglas Reed for Treasurer of our School.

I want to assure you Douglas is trustworthy, or he would not have been elected a candidate. He has the ability, and will, if you elect him, fill this very important office with honor to our school and credit to himself, and will give the Treasurership his best efforts at all times, as he is punctual in his attendance and is capable in every way. You will not make a mistake if you elect him.

With this assurance on my part, I want to say, your vote for Douglas will be appreciated.

Thank you.

My Friends:

Vote for Jeanette Heim for Secretary. She writes well, and this is one thing a Secretary should be able to do. She has belonged to two clubs of which I was a member and she was Secretary of both. Here she proved to be a very satisfactory Secretary. I am sure she will do all in her power to fulfill the duties of the office. So, when casting your ballot for a Secretary, remember to vote for Jeanette Heim, and you will be doing me a favor as well as honoring her. I am sure she will be an honor to the office.

So take my advice
And think just twice
And vote for Jeanette Heim.

I thank you.

NameNo.

BALLOT FOR SECRETARY AND TREASURER
of the

NORMAL ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

Officers are elected for one year, beginning
November 6th, 1923.

To the Children of the Elementary School:

Mark an "X" in square in front of the person for whom you wish to vote. Vote for one person only for each office. Remember, this is your privilege. Be sure to look upon it as a duty to vote for the officers who have these qualities; namely, honesty, accuracy, responsibility, courtesy and courage.

(Signed)

VIRGINIA E. STONE,
*Chief Executive.*MARGARET INTYRE,
*Chairman.*RUTH HORNER,
*Chairman, Nominating
Committee.*For Treasurer
(Vote for One)

- ☐ Mary Freburger
☐ Jane Slowik

For Secretary
(Vote for One)

- ☐ Homer Shaffer
☐ Jeanette Helm

It was a busy time all around. The committee of Normal School students had much to do to get ready. They supervised the naming of election judges and clerks, they supplied these with explicit typed directions, they prepared the ballots, they set up the booths and arranged, to the last detail, the balloting place. The Elementary School teachers kept themselves in the background, yet their watchful eyes lost no detail of the planning, and they were ever ready with advice and suggestions whenever the need arose. At the right moment, for instance, the first and second grade teachers gave careful instructions to their small charges as to how ballots should be marked for chosen candidates.

The election day arrived, the first Tuesday after the first Monday in November. Suppressed excitement was evident. The table for the judges and clerks, the ballot box (somewhere an actual glass box had been produced), the booths provided with all necessities, indelible pencil properly tied to the table with a bit of cord,—all was in readiness. With quiet decorum, children filed into the room, received ballot, disappeared behind white curtains, returned and handed to the expectant judge the marked ballot, saw it disappear into the box, then gave place to the next determined voter.

The world has a different type of morality for life and for politics, and this makes itself known in even the efforts of children when parents begin to have a live interest in the outcome of school activities. The first two elections passed with no question as to honesty of choice, or honesty of voting. This year we were amazed to find that one candidate had offered to each first and second grade child who gave her a vote a gift of a "lollipop." The harm which arises from

this type of graft was explained to the children, and the candidate had to make an apology to the two lower grades. The opposing candidate was elected.

Is this "playing at voting," as one parent suggested? As we see it, day by day in the Elementary School, we know that there is no school honor so great as selection, by classmates, for one of these offices. What are the crying needs of the country today in politics? Knowledge of what an office requires, honesty, need of selecting the best man for the place regardless of personal considerations, the courage of conviction. Why has our democracy failed? Can education supply the need by learning to do through doing? Is there real value in such an election in this "pure democracy," where actual "equality of opportunity" exists, where there is no disqualification because of sex, age, or degree of education? In technical matters, the election conformed to the practices in "grown-up" society, but in serious sense of responsibility, in effort to place voting on a high and sane plane, would it not be well if "grown-ups" followed the example of these junior citizens?

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Some Tendencies and Issues in the Making of Social-Studies Curricula

BY PROF. J. MONTGOMERY GAMBRILL, TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

In the December and January issues of *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* appeared the report of an investigation of experimental curriculum making in the social studies which I made for the Commonwealth Fund under the auspices of the National Council for the Social Studies. The present article¹ is supplementary to that report, with which it is assumed the reader has some familiarity, and it presents an analytical summary of outstanding issues and tendencies as they appear in the principles and practice of the innovators, and from my impressions of classroom observations and conferences with officials and teachers during the course of several months of country-wide travel. Although I have collected no statistics to show exact conditions or to measure the amount and character of change, it seems likely that tendencies in the schools reflect to no slight extent those which appear in this analysis. The obligation to avoid expressions of personal opinion is no longer strictly binding, as was the case in making my report, but the space limits will allow only a small place for critical discussion, while a volume would be needed to do justice to the subject.

The contents of my report are indicated in the following outline, and if the reader will note that chapters I-IV were printed in December, and chapters V-VII in January, it will be unnecessary to clog the text of this article with numerous citations:

EXPERIMENTAL CURRICULUM-MAKING IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

- I. Social Studies in the University High School of the University of Chicago.
- II. A "Unified Social Science Curriculum."
(Proposed by Prof. H. O. Rugg, Lincoln School of Teachers College, Columbia University.)
- III. A Composite Course for the Junior High School.
(Proposed by Dean L. C. Marshall and Associates.)
- IV. A Project to Construct Scientifically a Fact Course in the Social Studies for the Grades.
(Undertaken by Superintendent Carleton W. Washburne and the "Winnetka Social Science Seminar.")
- V. "Vertical Supervision" and a Continuous Program for the Twelve Grades.
 1. The State Program of Pennsylvania.
 2. Oakland, California.
 3. Detroit, Michigan.
- VI. Pupil "Activities" and Community Contacts.
 1. The Minneapolis Plan.
 2. Community Civics through Practical Investigations (Fresno, California).
 3. Community Organization in Class and School (Rochester, New York).
 4. Theory and Practice of School Citizenship (Long Beach, California).
- VII. Some Types of Composite Organization.
 1. The Project as a Basis for Curriculum Organization.
 2. "Job Analysis" for Courses that "Function in Real Life" (University High School, University of Missouri).

3. World History as a Basis of Integration.

A. A Composite Course for Grades VII-VIII
(Proposed by Dr. D. C. Knowlton, Lincoln School, Teachers College, Columbia University).

B. A Minimum Composite Course in One Year
(Mission High School, San Francisco).

Analysis of these chapters, and of my notes upon many classroom visits and personal conferences suggest consideration of the topics which follow.

I. CRITERIA AND PROCEDURE IN CURRICULUM BUILDING.

The dominant ideas in the choice of curriculum materials seem to be everywhere training for citizenship and meeting the needs of contemporary society. One constantly meets such expressions as "what it means to live together in organized society," and the need of developing qualities "essential to effective participation in our society" (Marshall); the necessity for "understanding our present social situations and institutions," "problems and issues of contemporary society," the "objective analysis of social needs" (Rugg); civic attitudes, ideals, habits, skills and intelligence (Oakland, California); providing the pupils with "an understanding of our present social situations and institutions," and training them to "participate in the various social activities and situations of our republican government now, and in the future" (Detroit, Michigan); "to prepare students to function as citizens" (Long Beach, California). "The one and only purpose of history and social science (including geography) is to train our young people in practical good citizenship—in how to co-operate with one's fellows—in how to lead the group life," says Dr. Barnard in the Pennsylvania course; and the second Committee of Eight of the American Historical Association was called a Committee on History and Education for Citizenship. One hears nothing about disciplinary values, and little or nothing about individual needs and development.² Nor is much heard of the value of the conventional subjects. If the curriculum makers raise the question of educational values to be derived from the study of history, or of government, they are very likely to approach the question with reference to certain supposed social needs, and to ask how the subject in question can contribute to these particular needs.

Students of the problem, including administrators, are very anxious that everything which is taught shall be practically useful, that it shall "function," and one often meets contemptuous reference to teaching "encyclopedic information." Such views have frequently been expressed in the past, and have been current for decades, at least, but at present they seem to be particularly prominent in the thinking of the curriculum makers. Current events, in some form,

are frequently taught in the high schools, and emphasized or urged in connection with the elementary schools, while administrators sometimes exhibit a kind of nervous dread of history as a subject dealing with the "dead past." The point of view represented by Mr. Marvin's *The Living Past* is little known or valued at best.

How shall the "socialized" content of the curriculum be determined? In recent years a number of investigators have been fascinated by the idea that courses of study might be constructed by objective or "scientific" methods. A convenient summary of typical enterprises of this kind may be found in Professor Ernest Horn's article, "The Application of Methods of Research to Making the Course of Study in History" (Chapter XIV, Twenty-second Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education, Part II, 1923). An ambitious and thorough-going effort to compile a list of problems and issues of contemporary society appears in Professor H. O. Rugg's analysis of several hundred books by "frontier thinkers." Striving at first to eliminate personal opinion and judgment from curriculum making, Mr. Rugg realized during the progress of his investigation that such a list of problems could furnish merely the basis of a curriculum, and that the selection of materials, and the organization, and proportions of courses could not be validated by strictly scientific inference. Superintendent Washburne, of Winnetka, Illinois, undertakes to eliminate personal judgment entirely from the building of a "fact course" for the grades, basing the selection and treatment of materials entirely upon statistical lists of allusions gathered from newspapers and periodicals, and arranged in the order of their frequency of mention.

In the making of courses of study for city and state school systems, the methods followed are almost invariably much less elaborate and ambitious than those attempted by special investigators. Reliance is placed chiefly upon the judgment of individuals and of committees, although there are some cases (for example, Detroit), where selected periodicals and books were examined, and, to some extent, analyzed. Whatever the procedure, one almost always finds the same general purpose of making courses that will be of strictly practical use in dealing with the problems of present-day society.

It is a striking fact, and, in my own opinion, a fundamental defect in curriculum making as it is carried on in the school systems of the country, that it does not utilize the equipment of specialists in the social sciences. High school teachers usually constitute the majority membership of committees working on curricula for the secondary schools, and, in most cases, they have had some special preparation in history, at least. In the case of the elementary schools it is the common procedure to appoint committees, under the chairmanship of a principal or vice-principal, and to complete the membership of the committee with similar officials and grade teachers. The completed course of study is sometimes submitted to a professor of history or government in a nearby

college, but the resulting last-moment criticism is only too likely to be perfunctory. In no case that has come under my observation have specialists in history, and the social sciences, by which I mean scholars of standing in their respective fields, been called in from the beginning to participate in the constructive work. In Los Angeles, California, an elaborate and extensive project in curriculum making is in progress. Full-time curriculum workers are employed, both for the elementary and secondary schools, and a well-known educator, Professor Bobbitt, of the University of Chicago, has been brought to the city, for months at a time, to direct the work. No specialist of similar standing in history, or government, or economics has been employed. A similar extensive, and, in many respects, excellent program for revising the entire curriculum has been inaugurated this year in Denver, Colorado, with the same failure to provide for the participation of scholars in the social sciences during the constructive stages of the work.

With few exceptions the same omission occurs in the case of all the enterprises in curriculum making. In the Marshall-Judd enterprise, the originator and director of the scheme is an economist, and his educational collaborator advocates the active participation in curriculum making of specialists in the social sciences.

II. COMPOSITE COURSES, INTEGRATION OR CORRELATION.

This tendency is found in practically all cases, and the idea is constantly put forward. Professor Rugg makes a radical application of the idea, his aim being "one unified social science curriculum," completely disregarding "subject" lines. Mr. Marshall, though less radical, especially in allotting a place to American and world history as separate courses, nevertheless emphasizes the idea of a fresh synthesis of materials, declaring that the conventional "subjects"—history, economics, government, sociology, or geography—"will disappear in any vital discussion of the contribution of social studies to our social living. These branches of social study are inseparable, save for the purpose of emphasizing some particular point of view on social living." The Marshall-Judd program also provides for systematic correlations with English, mathematics, and natural science. The high school at the University of Chicago is relatively conservative in this respect, yet adopts the radical plan of a composite course in civics and English at the beginning of the senior high school cycle, while historical backgrounds are used to a considerable extent in the community civics and "modern problems," and aspects of community life are frequently considered in the study of history. The Pennsylvania program is also comparatively conservative, providing for separate courses in national and world history, yet the composite idea appears at many points, and particularly in the "Problems of Democracy" course in the twelfth year.

In several cases world history becomes the basis for an integration of the several social studies. Dr.

Knowlton follows such a plan for grades VII-VIII in the Lincoln School of Teachers College (Columbia University); Messrs. Nunn and Chase use the idea in their attempt to make a complete minimum course in social studies to be completed in one year (grade X). Superintendent Washburne and his Social Science Seminar (Winnetka, Illinois) construct a "fact course" for grades IV-VI on the basis of a survey of general history. In Detroit and Los Angeles the courses for the elementary grades make no distinction of subject lines, although the treatment is primarily geographical. Numerous other cases of the kind might be pointed out. At the University of Iowa a course for elementary grades worked out by Professor Ernest Horn is organized as follows: grade II, a study of outstanding problems in a primitive community (Iowa Indians); grade III, outstanding problems of pioneer life in Iowa; grade IV, history of transportation and communication, clothing, time and clocks, and the fishing industry, all with a view to showing how the solution of large problems in these fields have been advanced; grade V, history of agriculture, growth of cities, clay and pottery industries, extractive industries, printing and paper industries; grade VI, history of architecture, shelter and household furnishings, music, medicine and improvement of health conditions, and of recreation. The content of these courses varies somewhat from time to time, in some cases the entire year's work being devoted to a single topic such as transportation and communication.

In the so-called "Problems of Democracy" course, frequently offered in the twelfth year, and, to some extent, in community civics courses, the composite idea appears to a varying extent.

The tendency under discussion raises special problems of organization. Professor Rugg aims to organize his materials entirely about the problems of contemporary society.³ Messrs. Marshall and Judd, on the other hand, insist upon the fundamental principle that "the material for the social studies should be organized in a definite scientific system around certain guiding principles." Another proposal is that courses should be built wholly or largely about "projects" or "project-problems." If carried to its logical extreme this plan, with its emphasis upon "purposeful activity" and freedom of choice, would result in allowing each class to make its own course of study or, indeed, in permitting each pupil to make his own course. Even the enthusiastic advocates of this procedure usually find it necessary in practice to restrict the application of the method very substantially. (Examples are given in chapter VII of my report, *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, January, 1924, pp. 51-52.) This idea, it is interesting to note, is not applied in the comprehensive program of Professor Rugg, and Messrs. Marshall and Judd explicitly attack it as a basis for curriculum building, though advocating the frequent use of a problem method of instruction.

Probably very few students of the problems of teaching the social studies would now advocate a

strict adherence to the conventional subject lines. The problem of correlation is an ancient one, and the need for better results has been generally recognized in theory if not in practice. It is natural enough that experiments, with radical schemes for integration, should now be made. The practical problem is: How far is it really helpful to go? At what points do the losses begin to exceed the gains? In particular, questions arise concerning the place and function of history, some of which are considered in a later section of this article.

III. THE IDEAL OF A COMPLETE SURVEY OF CIVIC PROBLEMS.

The Rugg program is explicit and radical in the application of the idea, proposing that the three hundred problems that have been identified and grouped are to be studied, many of them recurrently, through the years of school life. The ideal is more or less implied in practically all the comprehensive programs, and is expressed or implied in many discussions and statements that one may hear in all sections of the country. I raise the question whether we shall not meet with more success in training citizens to deal with the problems of the day by concentrating on fewer topics and problems in order to give a clearer ideal and stronger habit of thoroughness, more training in the discriminating use of evidence, and more practice in the kind of thinking required for the study of civic problems. Moreover, the extreme difficulties presented for the teacher by these new programs must be considered, for, at best, it is going to be a very difficult undertaking to secure teachers with even a moderately satisfactory equipment in scholarship and practical knowledge of social and political problems. This is a subject that invites extended critical discussion.

IV. THE IDEA AND THE IDEAL OF COMMUNITY LIFE.

Courses in community civics have become fairly common. Mr. Arthur Dunn published the first textbook in this field in 1907, and, as a member of the National Education Association Committee, he prepared, with the collaboration of his associates, a bulletin published by the United States Bureau of Education in 1915, which has had a marked influence. I am referring, however, not so much to the mere offering of courses called "community civics," as to emphasis upon the idea and ideal of co-operation in the social group, to emphasis upon this idea in other courses, and to attempt to give actual practice in organizing and effectively participating in community life. In the junior high schools of Rochester, this idea is basic to all the social studies work, the class and the school being organized as a community, the activities of which are directly correlated with the classroom construction. The idea is prominent in the state program of Pennsylvania, being used, for example, as the organizing theme for American history in grade VII. It is emphasized in the high school of the University of Chicago. Dean Marshall, while employing different terms, features a similar idea. Many cities publish special pamphlets or books describing the local community in its various aspects.

The community idea can be used to interpret the interdependence even of the peoples of the entire world, but the tendency still persists to think of the community as the neighborhood. In not a few cases the study of the community easily allies itself with the American practice of "boosting," and is expressed in what might be called neighborhood chauvinism,—a tendency which, to some, at least, will seem to involve more evils than benefits. Questions also arise regarding the amount of time and emphasis that can profitably be devoted to the local community. In Kansas City, Missouri, a series of textbooks devoted to the city is in course of preparation, under the authority of the Superintendent, I. I. Cammack. A textbook intended for grades IV-VI is now in press, and others are to follow for the upper grades and the high school. The plan to continue the study of the city through many grades of the school is actively supported by the Chamber of Commerce. The Superintendent of Schools is quoted as saying: "I should like to see the time when every child, on the completion of a course in the Kansas City schools, shall become an enthusiastic, intelligent, and efficient booster of our city."

V. THE ACTUAL PRACTICE OF CITIZENSHIP.

The idea of allowing pupils a share in the management of the school, or some degree of "self-government," has long been familiar. The idea was attracting attention in the United States about the opening of the twentieth century, when the John Crerar Grammar School, of Chicago, was experimenting with a system of "tribunes" and other officials, the Hyde Park High School, in the suburbs of Chicago, was trying out a school city, and the writer of this article was testing the plan of a "school state" in Ellicott City, Maryland.⁴ It is now a very common practice for progressive high schools to have a Students' Council, or a Students' Association, or a system of "traffic officers," or other pupil officials. These organizations are regarded as valuable for training in citizenship and democracy, but along with scouting and clubs, are usually regarded as "extra-curricular activities." There is now apparent, in some places, a desire to make these activities a definite part of the curriculum, and, in some cases, to correlate or integrate them with the classroom work in the social studies. (Examples of this are given in chapter VI of my report, *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, January, 1924, pp. 48-51.) In the junior high schools of Rochester, New York, a particularly definite effort is made to accomplish this result. In the Polytechnic High School, of Long Beach, California, there is a course devoted largely to school citizenship correlated with practice. In the Berkeley, Calif., High School, there is a "high school park department" with a superintendent, park commissioners, and advisory board, all charged with the duty of co-operating with the city officials in the care and protection of the city parks, and in preserving or improving the appearance of the school grounds. The University High School, in Oakland, California, undertakes systematic work in "applied civics" (*HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, Jan-

uary, 1924, p. 44). Classes are frequently trained in the simpler aspects of parliamentary law, and taught to conduct business in the classroom through class officers and committees, a practice sometimes carried to amusing extremes. It is hardly necessary to say that the old and familiar device of organizing a class temporarily as a legislative assembly or a constitutional convention is found more or less frequently, often with the naïve assumption on the part of the teacher or principal that a new device (perhaps called a "project") has just been discovered. In primary and kindergarten grades one finds training in conduct, in manners and morals, regarded as "civics," or "training in citizenship."

An associated idea that is making itself apparent is the importance of bringing the pupils into direct contact with the industrial, financial, governmental, and social institutions of the community, and, if possible, bringing about some direct co-operation or participation. A systematic plan followed in Minneapolis is described in my report, chapter VI, section 1. The high school park department at Berkeley, already mentioned, is another example. The Junior Red Cross, and other pupil organizations might also be mentioned.

VI. THE PLACE AND FUNCTION OF HISTORY.

There are two or three vital issues that appear in connection with the place and function of history. In general, one finds, among innovators, a strong insistence that history courses must conform to the test of practical civic value, that they must explain or assist in explaining current social and political problems. It then becomes an easy assumption that only modern history is worth studying, that the value of any historical account is inversely proportional to its chronological distance from the present. No thoughtful student of history needs to be told that this principle is utterly fallacious, that some things in ancient and medieval history are nearer to us in practical value than much else in the history of the past century. School administrators and supervisors, however, are frequently not students of history, either thoughtful or otherwise.

The emphasis upon the practical, and the anxiety of enthusiasts about method to "follow life," give some currency to the idea that history in organized fields ought not to be taught at all. According to this theory history ought not to be taught, but should be "used" incidentally as needed in connection with the study of problems, projects, or special topics. This idea has been more or less discussed for a good many years, and, in fact, is very old, but the writings of certain educators have given it a good deal of currency in recent years, and have led to some efforts to apply it, more or less radically, in school practice. My report at various points supplies examples. On the whole, however, I found less disposition to dispense with the systematic study of history than I expected at the beginning of my inquiry. It is not without significance that Professor Rugg, in the attempt to work out a radically new program of studies by an objective method, and with utter disre-

gard of subject lines as such, has found himself, in the actual execution of his plan, organizing large blocks of materials in terms of historical development, and that he has come to insist that "the chronology of historical movement must not be upset," and that he suggests the possible need at intervals of a year or two of "more continuous stretches of history in which all interlocking aspects of national development are tied together systematically." Yet Professor Rugg's test of the value of "worth-while historical material" is its actual use by specialists in government, economics, and sociology in discussing contemporary problems. There will remain differences of opinion as to the educational value of a systematic study of the development of large social groups—nations, continents, or mankind.

In the present state of educational opinion it is inevitable that current events should receive a great deal of attention in the schools, and that many should consider such work more important than the study of history. It is not uncommon in high schools to find one period a week set aside in history and civics classes for the study of current events based upon some news magazine. In large part this work is superficial, and not seldom it is deplorably ignorant, classes, perhaps, rushing through five or ten topics in a fifty-minute period, and disposing of such a question as German reparations in three or four minutes. It is usually asserted that this work is closely associated with the regular courses in history and civics, but observation of the procedure in many classrooms shows few signs of such a relationship. In some cases the study of current events and problems is undertaken in quite a different way. For example, in the Pasadena, California, High School, Mr. R. L. Ashley has introduced a course called Contemporary History, devoted chiefly to European events during the last half century, and during the current year the historical period covered has been cut down. The idea is to study a selected number of current conditions and problems in terms of their historical background. At the University High School, Oakland, California, a plan for systematic correlation of the study of current events from magazines with the course in European history, has been worked out by Miss Marion Brown (*HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, January, 1924, pp. 44, 45).

There is a good deal of interest in the introduction of one year courses in world history. This appears in two different ways. In one case there is the desire to give in a relatively brief period some impression of the progress of mankind from the beginnings of civilization to the present, perhaps an objection to "truncated history" (Pennsylvania). In practice these courses still show a tendency to present an epitomized treatment of the usual subjects. No attempt at a really fresh interpretation with a topical organization making definite allowance for the limited time has come to my attention. The second aspect of the introduction of world history appears in a blind following of what seems to be a fashion, inquiry perhaps disclosing that the real

motive is a desire to cover a large period in a shorter time, often with some special group, such as students in science or commercial courses. World history is simply crammed into one year instead of being studied for two or three. This tendency is plainly not progressive but reactionary, a reversion to old-fashioned general history. The careful observer will also see that most of the courses now listed as world history are not really histories of mankind at all, but are merely general European history, the designation which is frankly used in the case of the Pennsylvania course, but in many other cases is not.

An item of interest is the occasional offering of half-year electives in the high school, sometimes economics or sociology, but in other cases such fields as the history of Latin America, or of the Pacific Coast section of America. These latter appear chiefly in California, but Detroit also has them under consideration. Teachers report much interest in these courses on the part of high school seniors, and testify that the pupils easily use books that are commonly regarded as college texts.

VIII. WILL THE SCHOOLS ESCAPE THE BONDAGE OF THE TEXTBOOK?

The vast majority of pupils still read nothing, or next to nothing, except the textbook, and school libraries, when available, are often slightly or unintelligently used. Yet signs of improvement are not wanting. Detroit is giving special attention to the problems of libraries and trained librarians, equipping not only its high schools, senior and junior, but many of its elementary schools, particularly those having the platoon organization (*HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, January, 1924, pp. 47-48). Here and there individual schools are, of course, managing intelligently the problem of reading. The high school at the University of Chicago makes extensive reading and study, under supervision, a leading feature of its work (*HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, December, 1923, pp. 385-391). The Marshall-Judd program includes much more material than does the usual textbook. The Rugg pamphlets also contain a much larger body of materials than the usual textbook can provide, and one frequently hears favorable comment upon them which is praise, not of their selection and organization of materials, but of their abundance of concrete detail and human interest for which conventional textbooks have no space.

Adequate training for the objectives now so much discussed is impossible without a much richer body of materials than it is possible to provide within the limits of the ordinary school text.

IX. SOME THINGS NOT FOUND.

There appears to be no clear recognition that we live in a rapidly changing world, and that "adjustment to environment" must include adjustment to change. It is a fact that can be demonstrated from social history that the rate of material and social change is constantly increasing. It should, therefore, be a leading purpose of civic education to accustom young citizens to the idea of a changing world, and to develop in them rational ideas about meeting the in-

evitable problems. I shall treat this point more fully at a later time.

There is generally lacking in the schools a clear realization of the issue of realism versus convention and romance in dealing with current and historical conditions and problems. In traveling from coast to coast I have seen no signs of the "sneer method" described in a recent issue of the *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* (June, 1923); neither have I found in schools many or extreme examples of the "100 per cent." type of patriotism. The treatment of social and political questions is, on the whole, simply conventional and commonplace, frequently sentimental and moralizing. It is not of a character to stimulate critical thinking, nor to lead very far toward the solution of civic problems.

There seems to be no question anywhere regarding the capacity of the common man to study the whole array of civic problems. I have not discovered any basis for Professor Bagley's fear that the schools are going to lose their faith in democracy, or diminish their efforts to educate the masses of the people, although in two or three places I was informed that the weaker sections of classes divided according to intelligence tests showed such inferior ability that the amount of work had to be somewhat reduced, and the methods somewhat simplified. On the whole, the schools do not seem, as yet, to be considering the issue.

There is everywhere a seriously inadequate conception of the necessary equipment of teachers of the social studies if they are to be even moderately competent to handle the newer types of program and to

achieve the objectives now so much discussed. The weakness in scholarship, in practical knowledge of public affairs, and in a realistic understanding of present-day society, though painfully evident in all stages of the work, is most conspicuous in the junior high school and in the elementary school, where specialization in the upper grades, at least, is absolutely essential to good teaching. The problem of teacher training calls loudly for immediate consideration.

The lack of co-operation between experts in education and administration, and scholars in the social science fields is a deplorable fact to which I have previously referred. The ferment now at work is full of promise despite many follies and absurdities, but it will be impossible adequately to cope with the problems that confront us until this co-operation of specialists becomes an established and routine policy in the making of curricula.

¹This article has been developed from an address delivered at the meeting of the American Historical Association in Columbus, Ohio, December 27, 1923.

²My report describes efforts to make special provision for allowing the more capable pupils to accomplish additional work beyond the average of the class. Accounts of this will be found in the chapters on the High School of the University of Chicago and on the Rugg program in the Lincoln School of Teachers College, Columbia University.

³This does not mean a "problem method" of teaching but refers to the arrangement of the materials of instruction. The point is fully explained and illustrated in the article on the Rugg program, *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, December, 1923, pp. 391-397.

⁴Report of U. S. Commissioner of Education, 1903.

Book Reviews

EDITED BY PROFESSOR J. MONTGOMERY GAMBRILL, TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

Fact and Fancy in Near Eastern History

BY PROFESSOR EDWARD MEAD EARLE
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It has been a failing among even careful scholars that they too frequently write histories *against* the Turks rather than *of* the Turks and their Near Eastern neighbors. Less than fifty years ago, Edward Augustus Freeman, for example, published a bitter diatribe against the Ottoman Turks because they were Turanians, not "Aryans"; Moslems, not Christians; Asiatics, not Europeans; polygamists, not monogamists; an "army of occupation," not exponents of national and constitutional government.¹ Such "history," written with the zeal of the crusader rather than with the objectivity of the scientist, is based upon the assumptions that the Turks are unregenerate and that Asiatic civilization is essentially barbarous. It suggests that the Near Eastern question can be solved only by the complete subjection, or, perhaps, the obliteration of the Islamic peoples. The indisposition of Western historians to write sympathetically, but dispassionately, of the Near East is one of the principal causes of the excessive national vanities of the Balkan peoples and their Moslem neighbors.

It is regrettable that Professor William Stearns

Davis has not risen above the Aryan-Christian conception of Near Eastern history. There is so genuine a need for a survey of the long and involved history of the Balkan and Anatolian peninsulas that his recent textbook² is a particular disappointment. Hereditary bias in favor of Christian against Moslem, Occidental against Oriental, Greek against Bulgar, should make teachers wary of prescribing this book for undergraduate students.

Professor Davis's exaggerated estimate of the importance of polygamy in Moslem society and his insistence that the appeal of Islam is to the sensuality of Asiatics seem to be the result of that brand of religious intolerance which he so freely ascribes to Near Easterners. The Ottoman Turks are pictured as an incorrigible "horde of Oriental adventurers," Turanian in "race," "barbarous in origin," and dependent "upon the evil traditions of eastern Asia." These characterizations are rendered ludicrous by the author's own contradictions. Although Professor Davis informs us that Turkish barbarity is innate in the Turanian ancestry of the ruling Osmanlis, he likewise tells us that these same Osmanlis are "mongrels by polygamy," that only twelve of the forty-eight grand viziers of the "prosperous period" of the Ottoman Empire were sons of Moslems, and that

"today the actual amount of Turanian blood in the veins of a Sultan is estimated at 'one drop in a million.'" Similarly unconvincing generalizations are offered regarding the treachery and incapacity of the Bulgars, as compared with the "clear cultural traditions" and the "best claim to civilized leadership in the Near East," which Professor Davis believes may be attributed to the Greeks.

It is no small task to summarize sixteen centuries of Near Eastern history. On the whole, Professor Davis preserves a sense of proportion, but one must wonder that only one-eighth of the book is devoted to the period since 1878 and only one-thirteenth to the important developments since 1914. The author has no room in his work for either an exposition of the geographical factors in Near Eastern history or an account of the economic and social development of the Balkan States during the nineteenth century; the place which might be assigned for these purposes is occupied by legends, anecdotes, rumors, and apocryphal stories. The Young Turk revolutionaries are pretty much dismissed with the statement that they were persons "who had imbibed atheism and absinthe at Berlin and Paris," and the Turkish Nationalist movement is taken to signify that "once more the Turk has proved himself a superior fighter and a bloody barbarian." Five precious lines are devoted to the murder of Talaat, which occurred "in the supposedly congenial atmosphere of Berlin" and by which "a German jury honored itself by acquitting the defendant." The Kaiser merits almost two pages of denunciation because of his determination "to appropriate the entire Ottoman dominions outright," but there is no mention whatsoever of the inter-Allied secret treaties of 1915-1917 designed to achieve that very purpose.

Somewhat more satisfactory than Professor Davis's book, although possessing many of its faults, is Lord Eversley's history of the Turkish Empire, recently brought down to date by Sir Valentine Chirol.³ Lord Eversley is skeptical regarding the religious zeal of the Ottoman Turks and writes with the conviction that the chief incentive of the Islamic invasions of Europe and North Africa was "the hope of plunder by the sack of cities, the sale of captives as slaves or for harems, and the confiscation of land and its distribution among soldiers as a reward for bravery." He believes, furthermore, "that the decay of the military spirit and the shrinkage of empire was largely due to the absence of these motives and rewards when the Turks were on the defensive." Approaching his subject from this point of view, Lord Eversley gives undue attention, of course, to massacres, devastation, and deportations, and overlooks the obvious fact that European history from the thirteenth to the seventeenth centuries is not free from similar barbarities. More than one-quarter of the volume, fortunately, is devoted to reform and revolutionary movements from 1876 to 1923, the most valuable chapters being contributed by Sir Valentine Chirol, who is journalist turned scholar rather than scholar turned journalist.

If Professor Ferdinand Schevill approached the

Near Eastern question with any particular bias, it is not discernible in his admirable history of the Balkan Peninsula.⁴ He is not misled by emotionalism into excusing what is inexcusable on the part of Christians or into condemning what is excusable on the part of Moslems. He does not studiously compare the best of Western with the worst of Eastern civilization. Two quotations will serve to illustrate the general spirit of the work. The first deals with polygamy. "The average occidental," writes Professor Schevill, "thinks of the Ottoman home as crowded with dark, almond-eyed houris, alluring priestesses of forbidden pleasures, and with such sensuous pictures in his mind he concludes that polygamy is the universal and hateful basis of the oriental family. The actual fact is that polygamy is rare and that perhaps as high as 90 per cent. of the Ottoman families are, at the very least, to put it mildly in view of the sexual gregariousness of Western men, as severely monogamous as our own. On the other hand, polygamy is a permissible practice expressly sanctioned by the Koran. There exists, therefore, no moral sentiment against it." The second deals with brutality and religious intolerance of the Turks during their heyday in the Balkan Peninsula. "The record of the greatest of the Sultans is probably no worse in the matter of religious persecution than that of his Christian contemporaries of the West, of sovereigns like Charles V, Francis I, and Henry VIII. Everything considered, Solymán must be accorded a high place as a ruler devoted to justice for Moslem and Christian alike and desirous of extending to his subjects of whatever faith or race that measure of security without which life is not worth living."

Professor Schevill's book contains excellent chapters on "The Epochs of Balkan History," "Geography of the Balkan Peninsula," "The Byzantine Empire," "The Coming of the Ottoman Turks," "Ottoman Institutions and Society," "Sultan Abdul Hamid," "New Phases of European Policy," "The Great War and the Balkan Peninsula." The work is well proportioned, interestingly written, and thoroughly scholarly in presentation. Economic and social institutions are given their due place without obscuring the general political outline. European imperialism is considered as one of the potent forces making for disunity among the Balkan peoples as well as for weakness in the Ottoman Empire. Altogether, this book is the best single volume now available in English on the general history of the Near East.

The most suggestive work in this field which has appeared since the outbreak of the war, however, is the recent volume of Professor Arnold J. Toynbee, dealing with the Turkish situation since 1914, more particularly since the Greek occupation of Smyrna, May 15, 1919.⁵ Professor Toynbee's thesis is that the blood-feuds of the Near Eastern peoples are not to be explained upon religious or racial grounds, but are rather the result of the introduction of the Western idea of nationalism into a non-Western world. He points out that nationalism, even in the West, has been a breeder of dissension and war. How much

more is this likely to be so in the East, where nationalities are not segregated territorially, but live side by side in the same towns. Under such circumstances, "massacres are only the extreme form of a national struggle between mutually indispensable neighbors, instigated by this fatal Western idea [of cultural and political nationalism], and carried on unremittingly by the other deadly weapons of expropriation, eviction, hostile interference with education and worship and the use of the mother tongue, and the refusal of justice in courts of law. The recent history of Macedonia and Western Anatolia has been a *reductio ad absurdum* of the principle of nationality." That no one people in the East has enjoyed a monopoly of slaughter, devastation, and deportations is made evident by Professor Toynbee's detailed record of the operations of the Greek army in Anatolia from May, 1919, to October, 1922.

A situation made bad by nationalist rivalries has been rendered intolerable by the intervention of the Great Powers, each bent upon pursuing its own particular strategic, economic, and political aims, with brutal disregard of every humane consideration. It is a sordid story, indeed, which Professor Toynbee tells of the diplomacy of the Western nations as it affected the Near East from 1914-1923. Greece and Turkey have been the victims of a cruel international game "played with living pieces," but without any sense of moderation or justice. More human sympathy and less prejudice, more self-criticism and less self-righteousness are needed among Western peoples before they can set themselves up as a moral censors of the conduct of their less fortunate fellow-men of the Near East.⁹

Professor Toynbee writes with depth of scholarship as well as with breadth of vision. His book should be read by every student of Near and Middle Eastern affairs. For the teacher it is particularly valuable because of the excellent critical bibliography—a noteworthy improvement over Professor Davis and Lord Eversley, who give no bibliographical aids, and over Professor Schevill, whose list of references might have been better organized.

¹ Cf. E. A. Freeman, "The Ottoman Power in Europe," (London, 1877).

² "A Short History of the Near East from the Founding of Constantinople (330 A. D. to 1922)." By William Stearns Davis. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1922. Pp. xvii, 408.

³ "The Turkish Empire from 1288 to 1914." By Lord Eversley, with six additional chapters, "From 1914-1922," by Sir Valentine Chirol. London: T. Fisher Unwin, Ltd., 1923. Pp. 456.

⁴ "The History of the Balkan Peninsula from the Earliest Times to the Present Day." By Ferdinand Schevill. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1922. Pp. vii, 558.

⁵ "The Western Question in Greece and Turkey—A Study in the Contact of Civilizations." By Arnold J. Toynbee. Boston and New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1922. Pp. xv, 420.

⁶ Professor Toynbee admits that he himself has been one of the worst offenders in this respect. In quoting one of his earlier books ("The Murderous Tyranny of the Turks," published in 1917), he says, "This is an example—perhaps not worse than the average—of the wrong attitude towards the Eastern Question."

A New History for Ready Reference

The New Larned History for ready reference, reading and research. The work of J. N. Larned completely revised, enlarged, and brought up to date by Donald E. Smith, editor-in-chief, and Charles Seymour, Augustus H. Shearer, and Daniel C. Knowlton, associate editors, with the assistance of a large corps of assistant editors, research workers, critical readers, and indexers. C. A. Nichols Publishing Co., Springfield, Mass., 1922-23. Vols. I-VI, A-Lyke, 5350 pp. (To be completed in 12 vols.) Buckram; size, 7 x 10½ in. \$8.00 per vol.

The original *History for Ready Reference* appeared in 1893-94 under the editorship of J. N. Larned, one of the best-known librarians of the country and later the editor of the valuable annotated guide entitled *Literature of American History*. The first edition, in five volumes, with supplements published in 1901 and 1910, has long been a familiar reference work both in libraries and homes. The present edition, the fruit of six or seven years of intensive work, is now practically complete and the successive volumes are rapidly coming from the press. It is mechanically new throughout, printed on thin "Bible paper" from small but clear and well-spaced type, is bound in lighter and more convenient volumes, and contains double the amount of material with many more maps and the addition of illustrations, about a hundred to each volume.

The general plan and arrangement of the original Larned are preserved. Composed of "the actual words of the world's best historians, biographers, and specialists," as the publishers put it, *The New Larned's* extracts from 4000 writers are grouped under titles alphabetically arranged with innumerable cross-references that avoid repetition and economize in length and cost as well as add to reference value. Under the various titles the arrangement is chronological except where the subject requires a partly or wholly topical grouping. The extracts are exactly quoted, with the proper indication of omissions and of the occasional editorial interpolations or abridgments. About three-fifths of the material in this edition is new, the remainder being carried over from the old editions.

History is interpreted as "embracing practically everything that has affected the life of mankind since time began" and the editors undertake to broaden the scope of the work to "a complete system of history for all uses, extending to all countries and subjects, and representing the better and newer literature of history." The growing interest in social and economic history is extensively recognized, as well as the increasing importance of many special subjects such as the Far East, Latin-America, Africa, and the various aspects of international relations. A large amount of material on government and civic problems is included, and geographical influence and relationships are emphasized. The work is thus remarkably comprehensive, although it makes no pretense of taking the place of an encyclopedia, which serves different purposes. Neither is it a biographical dic-

tionary, as the publishers say frankly, the important names being listed alphabetically with only a few lines of information and a cross-reference to some longer article; but it is unfortunate that a larger place was not made for biographical detail and discussions of personality.

A clearer idea of the scope of the work may be conveyed by a few references to specific sections, with the number of pages indicated (in parenthesis) in some cases as examples of proportion. Each article of course has its numerous cross references. There is a section on each of the continents and on all countries or nations, e.g., England (205), France (334), Germany (192), Greece (76), Canada (66), China (72); and on the chief cities, races, religions, treaties, international conferences, and the like. One finds Ægean Civilization (11), Archeology (10), Agriculture (30), Bible (19), Bicameral System (2), Caucus (4½), Commission Government in Cities (6), Common Law (25), Commerce (44), Inventions (50), League of Nations (12), Labor Legislation (14), Libraries (51). The full text of the Constitution of each country is included, also those of many treaties and of some other documents.

A work of this character has some inherent limitations. Permission cannot always be obtained to reprint adequately from recent books protected by copyright, and the editors turn perforce to less recent and less accurate material more or less corrected by editorial notes. In this respect *The New Larned* has been in many cases surprisingly successful, partly no doubt because of the brevity of most of the extracts; e.g., the article on Latin-America draws chiefly from such historians as W. R. Shepherd, W. S. Robertson, J. B. Moore, J. H. Latané, and C. E. Chapman. Very recent articles are often quoted from periodicals and Proceedings, though in many cases with the inexcusable omission of the author's name, and the same neglect is observable in the case of extracts from some of the coöperative histories, such as the *Cambridge Medieval* and *Cambridge Modern*. Unevenness of quality and unjustifiable proportions are doubtless unavoidable in so extensive an undertaking. It is astonishing to find such a vastly important subject as the Industrial Revolution treated in 11 pages,

which is much too short even allowing for the fact that there are numerous cross-references.

The materials vary greatly in character. The classic and standard historians, doubtless all of them, are represented, and sometimes extracts from out-of-print works are usefully included. Standard treatises on various countries and subjects and monographic literature are drawn upon, magazines and newspapers are utilized, and documentary material printed, often in full. It is to be regretted, however, that so much of the material has been drawn from very well-known and widely-possessed and easily-accessible manuals and textbooks. For example, in the very important section on the Industrial Revolution, nearly all the extracts are taken from the following: Usher's *Industrial History of England*, Cheyney's *Industrial and Social History of England*, Ogg's *Economic Development of Modern Europe*, the college textbooks of Hayes and Turner on European history, two excellent little high school books (Tickner and Osgood), Chapin's *Social Economy*, and Ellwood's *The Social Problem*. The article on Agriculture draws heavily on Professor Ogg's well-known manuals on economic history.

A spirit of fairness seems to characterize the work, though it is not quite true that "All sides of controverted questions are presented by the ablest advocates." Bolsheviks and Ku Klux Klan are handled briefly and gingerly, League of Nations is twelve pages of summary chronicle, documents, and statements by League advocates. The Liquor Problem is—safe. Christian Science is treated—discreetly. The same might be said of the 45 pages on Christianity. The Communist Manifesto is not among the documents printed, and the article on that topic is less than half a page. However, the editors have certainly shown a temperate spirit and do not make themselves propagandists.

The numerous illustrations are an important addition to *The New Larned*. Although some of them are mediocre or poor, many are satisfactory and those in color and duotone are usually excellent. The maps, most of them in color and many double-page, are clear and serviceable. The bibliographies are a useful feature, and their value will be greatly increased when the last volume of the series is published with its general list giving publishers and dates of publication, the latter being especially needed.

On the whole, *The New Larned History* represents an enormous amount of work competently done, a valuable enterprise carried out with gratifying success. It is a huge collection of historical "readings" in readily accessible form, indispensable for public libraries, highly useful for school libraries, and well worth while in the home.

G.

New School Texts in American History
United States History. By Archer Butler Hulbert.
Doubleday, Page & Co., Garden City, N. Y.,
1923. xx, 570+86 pp. \$2.00.

This high school text is written in the spirit of

Reviewed in Historical Outlook For January

Told in Stories	H. J. Eckenrode
American History, Book I	Price, 90c.
Stories of South America	E. C. Brooks
Historical and Geographical	Price, 80c.

JOHNSON PUBLISHING COMPANY
Richmond, Virginia

hope and optimism. There is none of the "sneer" attitude, nor is there the old provincial "my-country-always-right" view. Mr. Hulbert has the broad spirit of modern scholarship without its destructive tendencies. Nearly one-fifth of the book, 120 pages, is given to the pre-Revolutionary period. The constructive influence of the Indians, and the effects of soil and vegetation are stressed. Otherwise this part is usual.

The treatment of the wars with England will suit all excepting those who insist that patriotism consists in holding England 100% to blame and the United States 100% successful. The causes of the Revolution are admirably and impartially summarized; the English situation and the colonial viewpoint are presented, the inevitableness of the struggle shown, the heroic qualities not neglected. The following will suggest the presentation of the War of 1812: "the blame....was not....all on one side"; "the war....was brought to a close by a stalemate peace," it "was worth what it cost." The Civil War is preceded by splendid sections entitled "The Northwest Girds Her Loins," and the "Sinews of Growth—and War." With economic and social causes receiving due emphasis, the political are thus summarized, "The cause was the unsettled question whether the Constitution was a compact between states from which the party of the second part (the states) could withdraw if they thought the party of the first part (the national government) had broken the contract by invading the rights of the states. The occasion of the trouble was the evil of slavery."

The last third of the book is devoted to the period since the Civil War under the general title, "Economic Revolution and its Problems." The treatment is topical within each of the four chapters into which the period is chronologically divided. Interest is uneven, ranging from an arid section of statistical treatment of material growth to a fascinating section on "The Cowboy's Kingdom" with atmosphere from Emerson Hough. That the topical method has its defects is clear. Sections dealing with such political history as elections and administrations are almost meaningless when all the issues have been placed in their neat topical pigeon-holes elsewhere; in each chapter the treatment of topics must break through the chronological bounds of the chapter; items that do not readily fall within major topics are apparently added at the author's whim, e.g., the Budget Law of 1922 is included in a section on Civil Service Reform and the Indian Problem, 1885-1901. The attention given to economic development and to international relations is highly praiseworthy.

Each chapter has an excellent introductory paragraph of real literary merit giving the sweep of events and the developments to follow. The chapters are made up of sections, each dealing with a distinct period or topic, and each ending with a "Reading List" and "Query and Discussion" paragraph. Pictures and maps are adequate and excellent. Over four hundred brief biographical sketches of men and women mentioned in American history and of historical writers are given in the appendix.

Mr. Hulbert has written a fair, well-balanced,

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by S. E. FORMAN

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ROBERT I. ADRIANCE.

High School, East Orange, N. J.

History of our Country for Higher Grades. By Reuben Post Halleck. New York: American Book Company. 534 pp.

Since Wells led the way many men not professional historians have tried their hand at writing history. In this junior high school text Dr. Halleck, long known as a chronicler of literary movements, has done a piece of work in several respects excellent. The plan is simply chronological, the style direct, and the method and emphasis in many ways old-fashioned. But the wealth of illuminating detail introduced, the thread of high and distinctly American idealism unifying the long story, and the constant concrete illustration of general truths, make it an unusually effective history.

The story up to the Civil War is arranged by administrations, interspersed with chapters on social and economic subjects; the topical method is used for the later period. The comparative space given to war, about one-fifth, is more than is found in most modern texts; Beard and Bagley, for instance, give about an eighth. The teaching helps at the ends of chapters include summaries of important points for review, exercises based on the chapter, and references for teacher and pupil. The illustration is good, and the maps especially clear and helpful. The phraseology is simple and the story throughout kept concrete enough to interest children of junior high school age. The treatment of the American Revolution is particularly to be commended; the facts are given without prejudice or unfairness, and the maps not only locate the places of interest but show movements by means of labelled arrows, as war maps should. The chapter on New Aims is marred in the eyes of the impartial historian by its extreme eulogy of Roosevelt; for although every fact cited is undoubtedly true, it is hardly fair to give children the impression that the great leader was the sole exponent of liberalism in the early twentieth century. An excellent short chapter on Latin America reflects the recent tendency to include more of the history of America outside our national boundaries, despite the fact that it is made up mainly of Panama Canal and Monroe Doctrine material. The difference in the point of view is the significant thing: here is a treatment of these two subjects not as a part of United States history touching neighboring lands, but as a part of Pan-American history bearing upon the United States. Verily our horizon grows wider.

But the distinguishing characteristic of this text is not accounted for in any review of its contents, which do not vary greatly from those of other recent texts of its kind. It is found in numberless skilful formulations of high standards of honor and patriotism, in repeated references to principles as shown in events, and in innumerable incidental appeals to idealism. The opening chapter is an attempt to sketch the whole contributing background of American life.

If it fails to compress into that small compass all the influences that have made us what we are, as any such attempt must fail, it at least gives a far more adequate picture of the "European background" than most texts afford. The last chapter is an attempt to summarize the progress of the last few years, and to formulate a program of socialized citizenship for the future. The significant thing is not so much that this has been done in a way to fire the imagination and fix the will of a responsive child, but that it has been done at all. A book that seeks to show American school children their relationship to all who strove before them, and to make them thoughtful for all who follow after, must become a thing dynamic for good when used in the public schools.

FRANCES MOREHOUSE.

University of Minnesota

Book Notes

Au Canada (Librairie Félix Alcan, Paris, 1922, vii, 270 pp.) is an account of the French Mission to that country during June and July, 1921. After a brief summary of Canada's "war effort," chapters contributed by various writers survey the country's economic life, religious situation, military preparation, and past relations with France. Some attempt is then made to give the impressions of the visitors and to forecast the future rôle and problems of the Canadian people. Five appendices contain the journal of the Mission, three addresses, and a list of works on Canada. The individual contributions naturally vary in excellence, statistics given are suggestive rather than complete, and the whole book sometimes suffers from slight inaccuracies. It is annoying to find an unqualified assertion that, during the strike of 1919, the city of Winnipeg was "*livrée au désordre*" (p. 206). The famous war story of the "crucified Canadian" appears (p. 6 and p. 243) but, as usual, no names are given. As an exact picture of Canada this book will hardly prove of much service to American readers, but it is an interesting story of a notable war mission.—THOMAS PEARDON.

Albert Mansbridge, the author of *The Older Universities of England* (Houghton, Mifflin Co., Boston, 1923: xxiv+308 pp. \$2.50) served between 1919 and 1922 as a member of the Royal Commission on the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, and his book, based upon a recent course of lectures on the Lowell Foundation at Boston, was written primarily for American readers. It is more than a history, for besides treating of the growth of these two universities from their earliest known beginnings down through the course of their more than seven centuries, it includes much description of present-day life in them. It is also a careful appraisal of the services rendered by them as well in their lean years as in their fat, and an interpretation of their place in the English world of today. The book offers much of value to Americans and will be of especial service to those who look forward to residence as students at either of these universities. For these especially there is a brief bibliography, and an appendix which describes

the facilities which Oxford and Cambridge offer to American students.—W. J. C.

Greek Life and Thought, A Portrayal of Greek Civilization, by LaRue Van Hook, Columbia University Press, New York, 1923; XIV—329 pp. \$3.50). If the tendency to reduce the emphasis placed on Ancient History in our schools is to be counteracted, there may be no more effective means than the use as texts of such works as this. The author's aim is to assist those who would understand the civilization of Greece, appreciate Greek Genius, and realize the debt of the modern world to our Hellenic antecedents. He has resisted the temptation to write a little cyclopedia of details; and has presented Greek culture in the age of its splendor. But as he has avoided idealized pictures in his illustrations, using only authentic representations of real things; so in describing conditions of life, he has confined himself strictly to matters of fact. If it is true, as Sir William Osler says, that "the deep rooting of our civilization is in the soil of Greece—practically all the philosophies, the models of our literature, the ideals of our democratic freedom, the fine and the technical arts, the fundamentals of science"; then the history of Athens is the history of the United States, and the youth of our mechanistic age cannot but profit from a constant return to a consideration of her "eternal gifts of beauty and truth, of good taste and moderation, of imagination and idealism."—E. D.

A pamphlet containing information valuable to the student of post-classical Latin is *Hints on the Study*

of Latin, by Alexander Souter, D.Litt., No. 21 in the series *Helps for Students of History*. (Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge, London; The Macmillan Co., New York, 1920. 48 pp. 8d.) The period covered is A. D. 125-750. A bibliography of general works on Latin of the period is given, including collections of texts, dictionaries, grammars, and histories; this is followed by a list of late Latin authors, arranged by centuries, with names of text editions and commentaries on each, accompanied by brief statements as to their value to the student. The pamphlet closes with a comparison of late with classical Latin, from a purely linguistic point of view.

No. 20 in the same series, *Hints on Translation from Latin into English*, by the same author (S.P. C.K., London; The Macmillan Co., New York, 1920. 35 pp. 6d.) sets forth the ideal to be striven for in translation, and the difficulties in the way of reaching that ideal, and gives several specimen translations, by the author and by other scholars, from late and from classical Latin, illustrating the overcoming of these difficulties. Aside from these models the pamphlet contains nothing more than a statement of the principles which every good Latin teacher strives to inculcate in his pupils from the time they begin to read their first author—LILLIE M. LAWRENCE.

In his *History of the Far East*, Professor Hutton Webster includes in 175 pages chapters on the lands and peoples of the Far East, India, China, and its outer territories; Japan, Oceania, and the Far East in world politics, with a bibliography, a chronological

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summary and an index. In addition to the "history," he provides material on geography, occupations and industry, transportation, army and navy, education, religion, social conditions and problems, language and literature, etc. Necessarily the result is a scanty outline. But with the pictures and maps, this is a very useful little reference book for school and college classes. (D. C. Heath & Company, New York, 1923; 175 pp.)

Villages of the Algonquian, Siouan and Caddoan Tribes West of the Mississippi, by David I. Bushnell, Jr., appears as Bulletin No. 77 of the Bureau of American Ethnology. In addition to much useful information about the life and customs of the western Indian tribes, the book is filled with interesting and valuable pictures. Ten pages of notes at the end of the volume explain the full-page plates. (211 pp., 1922; Washington, D. C.)

Notes on Periodical Literature

BY GERTRUDE B. RICHARDS, PH.D.

In "Some Reflections on Corfu and After" (*The National Review* for December), Major Newman Craig says: "In the only country, Italy, where Fascismo has been put into operation wholeheartedly it has, in a short twelve months, ...put an end to waste and inefficiency in the great spending Department. It has remodeled the Civil Service, modernized the Navy and reorganized the Army. Yet each of these Departments of State is costing less than in 1914.... There is no unemployment in Italy, nor, since November, 1922, has there been an industrial strike or lockout. Italy is within measurable distance of balancing her budget.... Could the Italy of the 90's, the Italy of 1914, the Italy of 1921 even, have dared take the action she took in 1923?.... In espousing Fascismo she....has....earned the right and the certainty of living happily ever afterward."

"Aeschylus and the World War" is the somewhat startling title of an article by Hugh MacNaghten, Vice-Provost of Eton, in the December *Nineteenth Century*, which he concludes by saying: "Darius is the counterpart of Wilhelm I and Xerxes of Wilhelm II; the Germans and Prussians have much more in common than a similarity of name, and the cry of freedom which saved at Salamis was also the watchword of the Allies who saved the world when we no less than the Hellenes were fighting for our all."

"There is no doubt that literally thousands of sincere, honest and patriotic Americans are members of the Klan and for the most conscientious reasons....They must be given credit for their sincerity if not for statesmanship and common sense....Also there must be a realization that this is a movement among our typically American people—and they are the very ones upon whose common sense and ultimate soundness of judgment we can most surely rely.... Give them time and they of themselves will react to better counsels and greater wisdom" says William Starr Myers in his article on "Know Nothing and Ku Klux Klan" in the January *North American*.

When Mussolini came into power he gave short shrift to the substitute for democracy which was the Italian par-

liamentary system. The country for many years had been the prey of the politicians who could never agree upon a single thing except on graft. Mussolini swept them out.... Mussolini is opposed to it [The League of Nations] because his pride cannot tolerate the existence of an international organization where small States or weak States can outvote a great Power like Italy on questions in which she is vitally interested. "Mussolini applies to the League his old Fascist principle that the vote is nothing if there is not the quality behind it," says Vladimir Poleakoff in his article on Mussolini in the December *Fortnightly Review*.

Philip Marshall Brown, writing on "Roosevelt and the Monroe Doctrine" (December *Forum*), says: "Lord Charnwood [in his study of Theodore Roosevelt] seeks to stress Roosevelt's generous interest in European affairs, notably in his great diplomatic triumph in connection with the Algeiras Conference of 1906 and in his sympathy with Belgium at the outbreak of the Great War. The author would seem to be endeavoring by implication to show that Roosevelt and other Americans who thought like him, had long abandoned that side of the Monroe Doctrine which deprecated active participation in the political affairs of Europe."

National Council for the Social Studies

Program of Sessions During N. E. A. Week, Chicago, Illinois, February 25 and 26, 1924.

President—William H. Hathaway, Riverside High School, Milwaukee, Wisconsin.

Secretary-Treasurer—Edgar Dawson, Hunter College, New York City, New York.

Executive Committee—R. G. Gettell, University of California, Berkeley, California; Albert E. McKinley, Editor of the *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, Philadelphia, Penna.; Thomas J. McCormack, LaSalle-Peru Township High School, LaSalle, Illinois.

MONDAY, FEBRUARY 25th, 12.30 P. M.
LUNCHEON SYMPOSIUM

Lincoln Room of the City Club of Chicago,
315 Plymouth Court.

Chairman—Thomas J. McCormack, LaSalle-Peru Township High School, LaSalle, Illinois.

"The Quest for the Criteria of Citizenship."

Charles E. Merriam, Department of Political Science, University of Chicago.

MONDAY AFTERNOON, FEBRUARY 25th,
2.30 O'CLOCK

Lincoln Room of the City Club of Chicago,
315 Plymouth Court.

Chairman—William H. Hathaway, Riverside High School, Milwaukee, Wisconsin.

"Experiments in the Reorganization of the Social Studies Curriculum in Junior and Senior High Schools."

Arleigh C. Griffin, Director of High School Research, Los Angeles City Schools, Los Angeles, California.

Howard C. Hill, University of Chicago High School, Chicago, Illinois.

W. H. Shephard, North High School, Minneapolis, Minnesota.

Harold Rugg, Lincoln School of Teachers' College,
New York City.

"Educational Counsel as a Phase of the Social Studies Program."

(a) History of the Movement for Character and Citizenship Training in Schools.

Milton Bennion, University of Utah, Salt Lake City, Utah.

(b) Mental Hygiene in its Relation to Training for Character and Citizenship.

Dr. H. M. Adler, Director, Institute for Juvenile Research, Chicago, Illinois.

Discussion from the floor.

TUESDAY AFTERNOON, FEBRUARY 26th,
2.30 O'CLOCK

Lincoln Room of the City Club of Chicago,
315 Plymouth Court.

Chairman—William H. Hathaway, Riverside High School, Milwaukee, Wisconsin.

The History Inquiry. Report made for the American Historical Association on the History Curricula of American Secondary High Schools.

Edgar Dawson, Professor of History and Government, Hunter College, New York City, New York.

Discussions of Above Report.

R. M. Tryon, Department of History, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois.

H. H. Barrows, Dept. of Geography, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois.

Charles A. Ellwood, Department of Sociology, University of Missouri, Columbia, Missouri.

Discussion from the floor.

**PROPOSED AMENDMENT OF THE CONSTITUTION
OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE
SOCIAL STUDIES**

It is proposed to amend Article I of the Constitution of the National Council for the Social Studies at the next regular meeting in February, 1924, as follows: That the words "Social Ethics" be added after the word "Sociology" in the list of subjects contributing to the content of the Social Studies.

This announcement is made in accord with the provision of the constitution that amendments must be announced to the members prior to the meeting at which they are submitted to a vote.

**Books on History and Government Published in the United States from
Nov. 24, to Dec. 29, 1923**

LISTED BY CHARLES A. COULOMB, PH.D.

AMERICAN HISTORY

Boddie, W. W. History of Williamsburg. Columbia, S. C.: State Co., 612 pp. \$5.00.

Bradlee, Francis B. C. A forgotten chapter in our naval history. Salem, Mass.: Essex Institute. 25 pp. \$1.00.

Burns, John F. Controversies between royal governors and their assemblies in the northern American colonies. Villanova, Pa.: [Author], Villanova College. 447 pp. (5 p. bibl.) \$5.00

Cresson, William P. Diplomatic portraits; Europe and the Monroe Doctrine one hundred years ago. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. 390 pp. (3 p. bibl.) \$4.00.

Grinnell, George B. The Cheyenne Indians, their history and ways of life, 2 vols. New Haven: Yale University Press. 367, 437 pp. \$10.00.

Hickok, Julia E. Colonial Maryland. Cincinnati: Ebbett and Richardson Co. 57 pp.

Lewis, W. S. and Phillips, P. C. The journal of John Work, a chief trader of the Hudson's Bay Co. (Early

western journals No. 1.) Chicago: A. H. Clark Co. (8 p. bibl.) \$6.00.

Marge, George T., Jr. From '49 to '83 in California and Nevada. San Francisco, Cal.: A. M. Robertson, Union Square. 212 pp. \$2.50.

Peterson, Arthur E., Editor. Landmarks of New York; an historical guide to the metropolis. N. Y.: City History Club. 261 pp. \$1.50.

Rosenberger, Jesse L. The Pennsylvania Germans. Chicago: University of Chicago Press. 183 pp. \$1.50.

Skinner, Alanson and Parker, A. C. The Algonkin occupation of New York. Rochester, N. Y.: L. H. Morgan Chapter of N. Y. State Archeological Society. 80 pp.

Sullivan, James, Compiler. Minutes of the Albany Committee of Correspondence, 1775-1778. Albany, N. Y.: University of State of N. Y. Vol. I. 1011 pp.

Thomas, David Y. One hundred years of the Monroe Doctrine, 1823-1923. N. Y.: Macmillan. 592 pp. \$4.00.

Washburne, George A. Imperial control of the administration of justice in the thirteen American colonies, 1684-1776. N. Y.: Longmans. 191 pp. \$2.00.

White, Owen. Out of the desert; the historical romance of El Paso. El Paso, Texas: McMath Co. 450 pp.

ANCIENT HISTORY

Budge, Sir Ernest A. T. W. The Book of the Dead. [2d ed. rev. and enl.] N. Y.: Dutton. \$7.00.

Mercer, Samuel A. B. Tutankhamen and Egyptology. Milwaukee: Moorehouse Pub. Co. 111 pp. (3 p. bibl.) \$1.50.

Taylor, Lily R. Local cults in Etruria. N. Y.: American Academy in Rome, 101 Park Ave. 269 pp. (1 p. bibl.) \$2.50.

ENGLISH HISTORY

Calthrop, Dion C. English costume painted and described [1066-1830]. N. Y.: Macmillan. 480 pp. \$4.00.

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PHILADELPHIA

- Dietz, Frederic C. The exchequer in Elizabeth's reign. Northampton, Mass.: Smith College.
- Evans, Florence M. G. The principal Secretary of State; a survey of the office from 1558 to 1680. N. Y.: Longmans. 392 pp. \$10.00.
- Eyor-Todd, George. The highland clans of Scotland, 2 vols. N. Y.: Appleton. 543 pp. \$17.50.
- Khan, Shafaat Ahmad. The East India made in the 17th century. N. Y.: Oxford University Press. 334 pp. \$4.70.
- Muir, Ramsay. The making of British India, 1756-1858. N. Y.: Longmans. 412 pp. \$2.50.
- Robinson, J. Armitage. The times of St. Dunstan. N. Y.: Oxford University Press. 188 pp. \$3.50.
- Ward, Sir Adolphus W. and Gooch, George P., Editors. The Cambridge history of British foreign policy, 1783-1919. Vol. III, 1866-1919. N. Y.: Macmillan. 683 pp. (8 p. bibl.) \$7.50.

EUROPEAN HISTORY

- Gooch, George P. Franco-German relations, 1871-1914. N. Y.: Longmans. 64 pp. 90c.
- Krassnaff, Peter N. From the two-headed eagle to the Red flag, 1894-1921, 4 vols. N. Y.: Lemcke and Buechner. \$4.00.
- Price, Clair. The rebirth of Turkey. N. Y.: Seltzer. 246 pages. \$3.00.

THE WORLD WAR AND RECONSTRUCTION

- Corbett, Sir Julian S. History of the Great War based on official documents. Vol. III. N. Y.: Longmans. 484 pp. \$7.50.
- Dumas, S. and Vedel-Peterson, K. O. Losses of life caused by war. N. Y.: Oxford University Press. 192 pp. \$2.00.
- Gilbert, Major Vivian. The romance of the last crusade; with Allenby to Jerusalem. N. Y.: William B. Eerdmans, Times Building. 235 pp. \$1.50.
- U. S. General Service Schools. The German offensive of July 15, 1918 (Marne source book). Fort Leavenworth, Kan.: General Service Schools Press. 923 pp.
- When there is no peace. N. Y.: Doran. 319 pp. \$3.00.

MEDIEVAL HISTORY

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